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Armature Design, Armature Winding, Construction of Armature, Armature Troubles, Armature Calculations, Armature Insulation, Commutator Construction, Electromagnets, Magnet Winding, Motor Operation, Staggering of Brushes, Calculation of Speed of Armatures, Direct and Alternating, Magneto-motive Force, Tables, etc., etc., Including a Complete Treatise on Storage Batteries.

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AUTHORITIES CONSULTED

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Author of Arithmetic of Electricity, Standard Electrical Dictionary, Electricians' Handy Book.

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Member American Institute of Electrical Engineers. Author of Electric Light Wiring.

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Author of Electrical Engineers' Pocket Book.

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F. H. GALE
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MARTIN P. RICE,
General Electric Companies' Publication Bureau.

Authorities Consulted

FRANCIS BACON CROCKER, M. E., Ph. D.
Professor of Electrical Engineering, Columbia College, New York.

SCHUYLER S. WHEELER, D. Sc.
Electrical Expert of the Board of Electrical Control, New York City.

EDWIN JAMES HOUSTON, Ph. D.
Professor of Physics, Franklin Institute. Pennsylvania.

ARTHUR E. KENNELLY, D. Sc.
Author of Algebra Made Easy, Alternating Currents, Arc Lighting, Electric Heating, Etc.

DUGALD C. JACKSON, C. E.
and
JOHN PRICE JACKSON, M. E.
Joint Authors of Text-Book on Electro-Magnetism and the Construction of Dynamos, and Alternating Currents and Alternating Current Machinery.

CALVIN F. SWINGLE, M. E.
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AUTHORITIES CONSULTED

WILLIAM ESTY, S. B., M. A.
Head of Dept. of Electrical Engineering, Lehigh University.

DUGALD C. JACKSON, C. E.
Head of Dept. of Electrical Engineering, University of Wisconsin.

GEORGE C SHAAD, B. S.
Assistant Professor of Electrical Engineering, University of Wisconsin.

CHARLES THOM.
Chief Quadruplex Department, Western Union Telegraph Company.

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PREFACE

The National Institute of Practical Mechanics, realizing that the battle grounds of to-day are industrial and that we combat in the name of Commerce, also know that the same valour and quality of daring is required to command the forces of business. The weapon of this hour is no longer nobility, but the mightiest is utility—the worker is now peerless—and of all the castes, labor is the highest.

In order to meet the test, the great need is to assist skilled labor to a more scientific knowledge of its work. The Electrical Workers' Standard Library has been prepared under our direction, with this idea in mind of presenting in a clear cut, easily understood manner, the latest methods and all essential principles a working electrician ought to know. A library that one can understand—a work complying in all respects with the safety rules of the National Board of Fire Underwriters.

Electricity is still in its infancy, yet the last twenty-five years has wrought such wonderful changes that those who are now a success in this chosen field know that there is still further and greater rewards sure to come to those who meet the test she offers—in furtherance and perfection of the many secrets she is yet to divulge.

The National Institute of Practical Mechanics, following out her plan of instruction which has proven so successful in the past in teaching scientific principles, has combined its many years of experience in teaching with the practical experience of trained electricians and engineers and presents an acknowledged authority, that is no longer an experiment.

It presents to the beginner or electrician a complete and compact treatise on Electrical Construction Work, a reliable guide for installing work in the most improved method—and especially in accordance with the Safety Rules—making the artisan's finished product absolutely standard and correct.

We have aimed throughout the volumes to cover all elementary principles in detail and give necessary tables—and especially to furnish all formulæ in simple and non-technical form.

Many test questions are furnished for practice—as a helper to the student in fixing the essentials and rudiments in his mind, thereby combining in the one set, a textbook, a ready reference, a quizzer, that lead to that great asset, a permanent and lasting knowledge of the subject.

We gratefully acknowledge our indebtedness to the corps of electrical experts who have assisted us so kindly, and to their generous aid and their hearty support in our behalf this work is due.

The work has been tried with the spirit level and plumb line, the straight line is now the shortest distance to the given point.

Go back to School. Select the text. Don't turn to page 2 until you know page 1. You'll accomplish volumes, the weary hours of searching scattered text books will be abandoned and that your need is presented is the hope of the compilers.

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CHAPTER I.

ELEMENTS OF ARMATURE DESIGN.

Current Generation.

Figures 1 and 2 are drawn to illustrate the principles of current generation in dynamo armatures. Figure 1 shows the simplest possible form of dynamo; the armature consists of but one turn of wire, as shown by heavy black lines. This wire is assumed to be fastened to the shaft and to turn with it in the direction of motion, in this case indicated by the arrow. In the dynamo, it is well known that an E. M. F. is generated by a conductor cutting lines of force; the current, in turn, depends on the E. M. F. so produced. The E. M. F. depends on the rate at which the lines of force are cut, i. e., upon the number cut in a given time. To produce one volt it is necessary to cut lines of force at the rate of 100,000,000 per second. It is immaterial, so far as the generation of this voltage is concerned, whether one wire cuts through a field containing 100,000,000 lines of force once per second, or whether one wire passes through a field containing 10,000 lines of force, for instance, 10,000 times per second.

If the shaft of the armature, Figure 1, be set in motion, the wire revolves with it and begins to cut lines of force, shown as broken lines in Figure 2. The direction of flow of the current generated in the wire depends upon the direction of the motion of the conductor and the direction of the lines of force being cut. A reversal of either of these two factors will effect a reversal of the current; if both are reversed, there will be no change. A very handy rule by which these various factors may be kept in mind has been given by Fleming and is as follows: Place the thumb and first two fingers of the right hand in a position at right angles to each other as shown in Figure 3. Assuming that the lines of force pass from the north to the south pole, place the hand in such a position that the index finger will point in the direction of the lines of force. If the thumb now points in the direction of motion of the conductor, the second or middle finger will

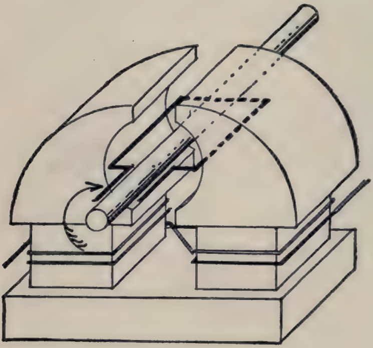


Figure 1.

indicate the direction of flow of the induced current. For determining these directions in the case of a motor, use the left hand in a similar manner.

If we notice closely the conductor, Figure 2, through the course of one revolution, we shall see that with every half revolution the direction of current within it must

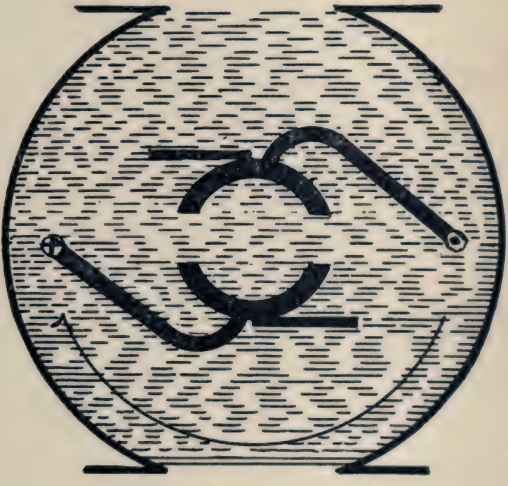


Figure 2.

change; for the wire at the right, moving downward, cuts the lines of force in just the opposite direction to what it will when it arrives at the lower position and begins to move upward. The same change will, of course, take place in the other half of the wire shown at the left. In Figure 2 the direction of flow of the current in the conductor is indicated by the conventional signs, a dot representing current flowing toward the observer and a cross representing current flowing away from the observer. These two symbols may be easily remembered by considering the dot as the advancing point of an arrow and the cross the retreating tail feathers.

There are two different ways in which the current in the revolving conductor can be collected, and which of these ways we choose to use determines whether we shall receive an alternating or direct current from the dynamo. If we select the method shown in Figure 4 we shall obtain an alternating current; that is, a current which will be reversed in direction every half revolution of the armature. Not only will this current change in direction, but it will also continually change in strength. We have already stated that the E. M. F. produced varies with the rate of cutting lines of force. Since the speed

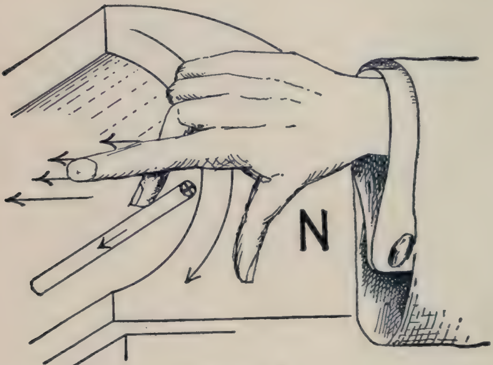


Figure 3.

of the wire is of necessity uniform, it is apparent that it will be cutting lines of force at the highest rate of speed while in the position shown in Fig. 2, i. e., at right angles to the lines of force. As the wire leaves this position it moves, more and more, in a direction parallel to the lines of force until it assumes a vertical position. At this point it is moving exactly parallel to the lines of force and is generating practically no current. The current has fallen to zero, but an instant later it will again begin to increase in value, but in the opposite direction, continuing in this direction until the wire again assumes the vertical position, when the current again sinks to zero only to reverse again immediately after.

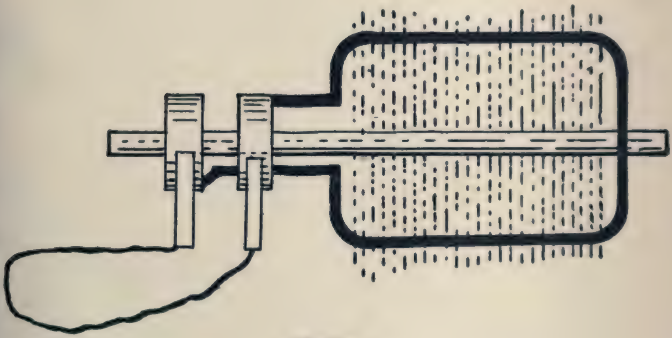


Figure 4.

For very many purposes the alternating current is not desirable and it therefore becomes necessary to rectify it. In order to do this the wire is connected as shown in

Fig. 5. While in Fig. 4 we had only two collector rings which served simply to make connection with the armature conductors and the outside circuit, in this figure we have what is termed a "commutator." The office of this commutator is to change the connections between the armature wires and the outside circuit at the proper moment in such a manner that the current in the outside circuit may be always in the same direction. This is done in the following manner: Referring to Fig. 2 it will be noticed that there are two brushes resting upon the commutator and that these brushes serve to take off the current and deliver it to the external circuit. The commutator as it revolves with the shaft slides under these brushes, and when the wires assume a vertical position the opening between the two halves of the commutator will be in a line with it and both halves will be in contact with each of the brushes. At this point the

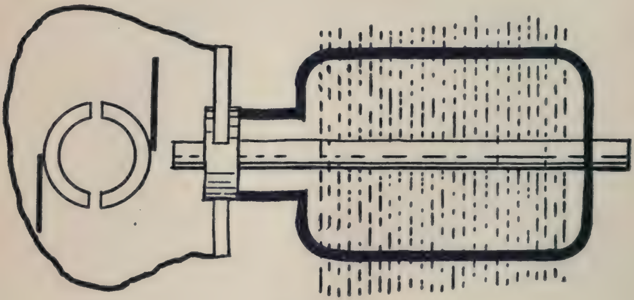


Figure 5.

coil will be short-circuited. As the wire continues in motion, a moment later the upper conductor will have changed from connection with the lower brush to that of the upper brush with a corresponding change in the lower conductor. It will be further noticed that this change was made to occur at just the time when no current was being generated. It can further readily be seen that with this arrangement the current in the outside wires remains always in the same direction, while, in the armature itself it continues to alternate as before.

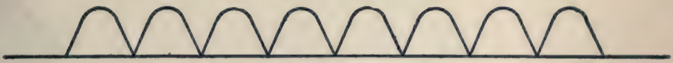


Figure 6.

A simple dynamo, the armature of which consists of but one turn of wire, is of course impracticable. Every actual dynamo has a large number of turns of wire in order to procure the requisite E. M. F. If, however, instead of the one turn we should place a hundred turns of wire on the armature in the same manner, by taking that many turns around the core before connecting the other end to the commutator, we would still have a dynamo that, while it would operate, would be of very little use. A dynamo having but one coil would deliver a current that would be constantly fluctuating in value as represented by the curve in Fig. 6. The current, although always in the same direction in the external circuit, would drop to zero every time the coil would come to that part of the field where the lines of force cut are parallel to the motion of the conductor. This coil would also, owing to its width, be short-circuited by the brushes while some of the conductors were in the active field and considerable sparking would be apt to result.

By adding another coil to the armature at right angles to the coil shown we would have a commutator consisting of four segments. Only one coil at a time would, therefore, be short-circuited, and while one coil was generating practically no current, the other would be generating its maximum current. This current may be represented by the curve, Fig. 7, where it will be seen that the irregularities in the current strength are somewhat reduced, the current approaching a more uniform value. It is evident that by increasing the number of coils and placing them at regular distances around the armature these irregularities would be still further decreased. For this reason, and for a number of others of which we shall treat more fully in another chapter, armatures are always provided with a large number of coils.

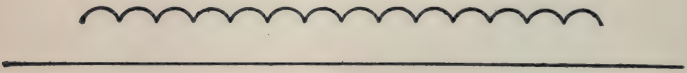


Figure 7.

If we were to reverse the conditions just described and instead of turning the armature and taking current from it we were to have a current flow through it in the opposite direction, as would, for instance, be the case where two dynamos are operating in parallel and the belt should slip off of one, the conditions would be as shown in Fig. 8. The current passing around the armature in the conductors tends to set up poles, as indicated by the vertical line drawn through the center of the figure. The poles set up by the armature and those of the fields act upon each other. A north pole attracts a south pole and repels another north pole, hence the armature is drawn around as indicated and continues to move in the same direction.

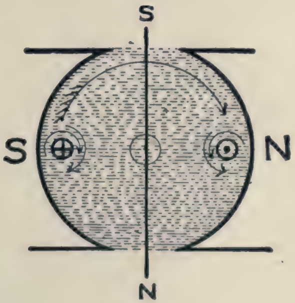


Figure 8.

ARMATURE REACTION.

The armature always revolves within a magnetic field as depicted in the preceding figures and the lines of force must pass through it in order that it may generate the necessary potential. If the fields were so magnetized as to produce north and south poles, as shown in Fig. 9, an iron armature core placed between these pole pieces would then be magnetized with opposing poles, as shown in the figure. When the armature begins to deliver current, however, it also becomes an electro-magnet and sets up a field of its own. If the brushes were set so that current flowed through the armature conductors as shown in Fig. 10 the armature would then become a magnet with north and south poles as shown. This figure shows a ring armature with the front end of the conductors removed so as to give a view of the iron core and admit of showing the path of the lines of force. When this armature is generating current the flow is away from the observer in those wires shown with crosses and toward the observer in those wires shown with dots. The outgoing currents from the two sides meet at the top and the entering current from the external circuit divides at the bottom, half passing through each side of the armature.

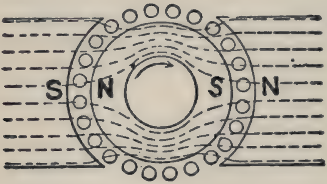


Figure 9.

If this magnetized armature were now placed between the pole pieces shown in Fig. 11 an entirely new field, the resultant of the field produced by the pole pieces and the field produced by the current in the armature, would be set up. The conditions as they would then exist are shown in Fig. 11. The north and south poles of the armature now occupy an oblique position between the two previous positions (that due to the field magnets and that due to the armature currents). If very little current flows in the armature conductors it is quite evident that the armature polarity will be due almost entirely to the field magnetism, or as shown in Fig. 9. As the current in the armature increases the armature poles will gradually shift their positions (assuming the field magnetism to remain constant) and their position will, at any time, depend on the current flowing through the armature.

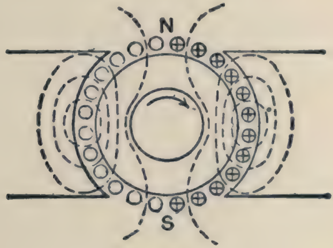


Figure 10.

In order to obtain sparkless commutation it is necessary, as will be more fully explained in the following pages, that the brushes rest on the neutral point, or that point at which the armature conductors are moving parallel to the lines of force, and where, consequently, there can be no generation of current. This position will be at right angles to the line between the armature poles. If the armature is delivering very little current the neutral line will lie approximately midway between the pole pieces, while, if the armature is delivering considerable current, there is a greater reaction and the armature poles, and likewise the neutral point, will shift its position in the direction of rotation of the armature. It can readily be seen that as the neutral point is shifted the tendency of the armature current is to still further distort the resultant field. Thus it becomes necessary to shift the brushes in the direction of motion of the armature with an increased load, and in the opposite direction with a decreasing load.

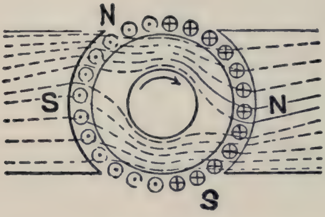


Figure 11.

This effect is known as the "cross magnetization" of the armature, due to the cross field or field at practically right angles set up by the armature currents. This reaction is much greater in a ring armature than with a drum armature and is one of the reasons why such armatures are better suited for variable voltage arc circuits than the drum armatures. At the same time this fact makes the armature less suitable for constant potential work.

It will be specially noticed that the lines of force are crowded together at the ends of the pole pieces from which the armature is receding. The relation between the direction of the lines of force and the motion of the conductor will always exist in the case of a dynamo, and hence it can be seen that the lines at the top resist, and those at the bottom assist, the flow of the lines of force in the field. This effect must be taken into consideration in the design of an armature, as the permeability of the iron may be considerably reduced by the excessive number of lines of force passing through the pole tips.

In the case of a motor the current in the armature is in the reverse direction to that of a dynamo. The same distortion of field will result, but in this case the armature will have a polarity opposite to that shown in Fig. 11. The lines of force are now crowded together at the pole tip toward which the armature is advancing, or against the direction of rotation. The neutral line of the armature is also shifted in the opposite direction and the brushes must, therefore, be moved correspondingly.

DEMAGNETIZING EFFECT OF THE ARMATURE.

When an armature is revolving between the pole pieces of a field magnet and is generating only a small current, the brushes occupy a position practically midway between the pole pieces and the only effect the armature currents would have on the pole pieces would be that due to the cross magnetization. When a considerable current is being generated in the armature and the neutral point has been shifted and occupies an oblique position, the armature currents will be seen to influence the field magnetization in another way. This effect may be seen by re-

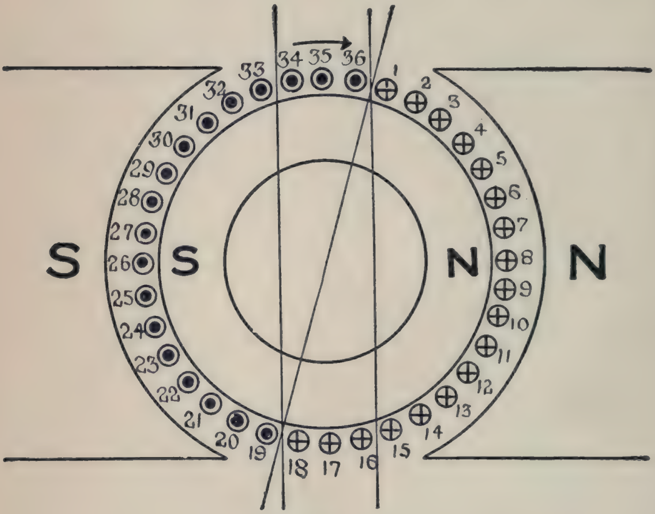


Figure 12.

ferring to Fig. 12. Here the brushes have been shifted to the position of sparkless commutation. Tracing out the current in the armature conductors according to Fleming's rule it will be seen that current in conductors 1 to 18 flows toward the rear of the armature, and in conductors 19 to 36 toward the front of the armature. The current in conductors 1 to 15 and 19 to 33 tends to cross magnetize the magnetic field produced by the pole pieces, but the current in conductors 34 to 36 and 16 to 18 tends to produce north and south poles as indicated in the figure. These poles are in opposition to the field poles and tend to demagnetize them. Those armature conductors, therefore, which lie between the two upright lines are known as the "demagnetizing" turns of the armature and they must always be considered in the design of a dynamo or motor, as the fields must be made strong enough to overcome their effect.

Fig. 13 shows the effects in the case of a motor. Here the current in the armature is in the opposite direction and the brushes are shifted against the direction of rotation. It will be seen that the demagnetizing effect is the same as in the case of a dynamo. It is possible to so design the armature and fields that in this way the magnetism of the armature can overpower the fields. The reaction of the armature can be decreased by increasing the air gap between the fields and the armature. Also, by increasing the strength of the fields, we are enabled to get along with a lower speed or fewer wires, and, as the reaction is proportional, other things being equal, to the ampere turns on the armature, it is thereby reduced. The greatest reduction in reaction, however, is effected when dynamos are constructed multipolar or with a number of poles.

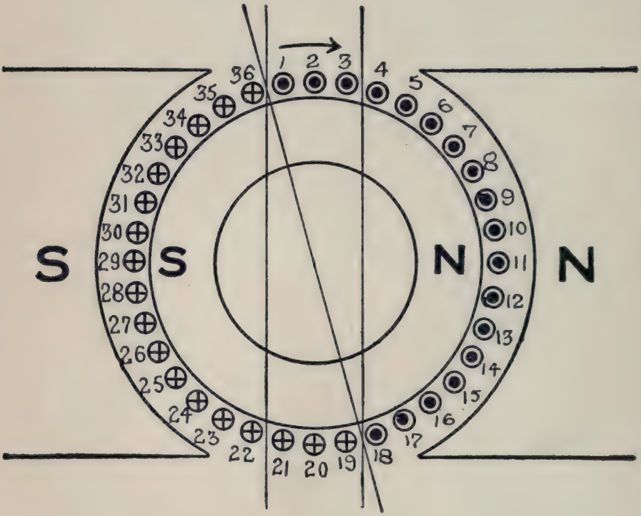


Figure 13.

SPARKING.

It is evident, from what has been said before, that to obtain sparkless commutation the brushes should be set at approximately the neutral point, this being the point toward which the current generated in the two halves of the armature tends to flow. This position is shown for an armature generating heavy current in Fig. 14, where only a section of the armature with the commutator segments and conductors approaching a south pole piece are shown. Tracing out the induced currents, it will be seen that current in conductors 1 and 2 of the left-hand half of the armature are flowing around the iron ring core toward commutator segment *c*, upon which the brush rests. Current in conductors 3 and 4, etc., which belong to the right-hand half of the armature, is flowing in a reverse direction around the core, also toward the commutator segment *c*. It is apparent that when conductor 2 passes the neutral point, the current in this conductor must be reversed.

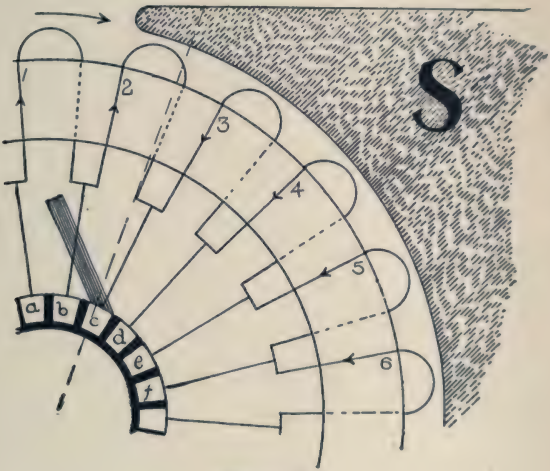


Figure 14.

Every coil has a certain inductance; that is, it tends to restrict any change in the current passing through it. If, when there is no current passing through it, the coil was connected to a live circuit it would take some little time for the current to reach its full strength. On the other hand, if current is already passing through the coil and the circuit is suddenly broken, the current tends to keep on flowing and manifests itself in the form of a spark. The greater the number of turns comprising the coil and the better the quality of the iron of which the core is constructed, the greater the inductance.

As the armature moves to the right, the brush will make contact with commutator segments *b* and *c*, and coil 2 will be short-circuited. Two things may now occur. If the brush happens to be set a little to the left of the neutral point, coil 2 will be in a position where it is cutting lines of force and generating current. If the resistance of the coil is low, as it generally is, considerable current will be generated, and this current will flow in the same direction as previously, but only in the coil instead of the circuit.

If the brush is set a little to the right of the neutral point, coil 2 will again be in a position where it will cut lines of force, but the induced current will tend to flow in a direction opposite to that previously flowing in the coil.

As the armature continues to revolve, commutator segment *c* leaves the brush and coil 2 is then thrown in series with the balance of the coils on the right-hand side of the armature. With the brush in the position as given in the first case, coil 2 would be generating considerable current in the same direction as that in coil 1 and the current from coil 3, being opposed by that in coil 2, would then jump across the space between the commutator segment and the tip of the retreating brush and severe arcing would ensue, this arcing continuing until the opposition offered by coil 2 had been reduced to a sufficient extent to allow the current to flow through it.

If, at the moment of separation, between the brush and the segment *c*, the brush was in the second position described, or at the right of the neutral line, the current in coil 2 would have been reversed at the time of breaking contact with the segment and would have been flowing in the same direction as that in coil 3. This coil would therefore offer no resistance to the passage of current through it from the remaining coils on the right-hand side of the armature and no arcing would occur at the time of separation of the brush and segment.

It is apparent that there will be one position where the brush can be set and at which no detrimental arcing can occur.

The bearing surface of the brush also has an effect on the sparking. With a brush just wide enough to cover the insulating space between the segments the current in coil 2 would have to be reversed instantly at the point of break to avoid sparking. This, of course, could not be done. If the brush was carried to the other extreme and made large enough to cover several segments, several coils would be short-circuited for some length of time, and the armature, commutator and brushes would become heated from the excessive current. This would also cut down the voltage produced by the machine, as several coils would be inactive.

The sparking of a dynamo is also greatly affected by the resistance of the brushes. An inspection of the figures will show that the current which is generated in a coil while it is on short circuit must pass through both lead wires and the brush. In an armature of many coils the E. M. F. produced in any coil is quite small and hence a little resistance will considerably check it. Furthermore, the greater the current used by the machine the less will be the tendency of the current generated in the coil to flow in opposition to the current in the main circuit. The coil should therefore be in such a position that the current induced in it tends to oppose the current in the main circuit which enters or leaves the brush.

Another effect that must not be overlooked is the reduction of the E. M. F. by an improper position of the brushes. If the brushes are shifted too far, many of the coils on the same side as the brushes will be in fields of opposite sign, *i. e.,* generating E. M. F. in opposite directions, and will therefore neutralize each other. If the reaction of the armature is very great it will destroy the opposing field ahead of the coils, as can be seen from

Fig. 11; that is, the lines of force of the fields will be partly overcome by the countermagnetization of the armature and the coils spoken of will merely be dead or inactive. But if the reaction of the armature is small the field will remain undisturbed and some of the coils will act in opposition to each other.

MAGNETIC CIRCUIT.

If an ordinary bar magnet is placed directly below a sheet of cardboard, upon which has been sprinkled a small quantity of iron filings, and the cardboard is then gently tapped, the filings will align themselves in the position shown in Fig. 15. The position of these filings indicate the presence of a magnetic field in the space surrounding the magnet.

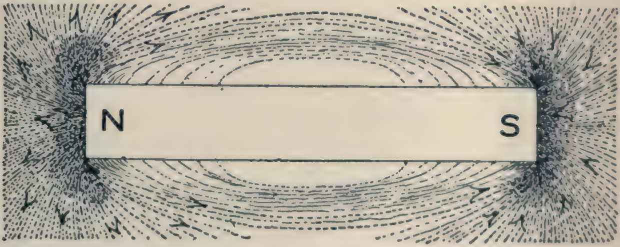


Figure 15.

Every magnet is supposed to be surrounded by a field similar to the one shown, this field being traversed by magnetic lines which pass through the metal of the magnet, pass out of the magnet at one end and return through the space surrounding the magnet and enter it at the other end, thus making a complete circuit. Whether or not these magnetic lines actually exist we do not know; for our purpose we are more concerned in the effects of these magnetic lines than in their actual existence, and the assumption of a magnetic field with magnetic lines gives us a convenient method for understanding and explaining the various actions. It is also assumed that in a magnetic circuit the lines of force flow through the air from a north pole to a south pole.

If the permanent bar magnet in Fig. 15 was replaced by a coil of wire carrying a current of electricity, practically the same effects would be observed as in the case of a permanent magnet.

A permanent magnet is composed of a large number of molecules, each molecule forming by itself an individual magnet with north and south poles. When these molecules become united and form a homogeneous mass the magnetism of all of them unites and forms one magnet with north and south poles. In a similar manner each turn of wire in a coil sets up a magnetic field of its own, but when a number of turns are combined to form a coil the magnetic effects of all of the turns unite and form one magnetic field with north and south poles.

The force which sets up the magnetic field is known as the "magneto-motive force," just as the force which induces a current of electricity to flow is known as the electro-motive force. The two forces in their actions are entirely similar. In an electrical circuit the effective E. M. F. is a combination of all the individual E. M. F.'s; for instance, the effective E. M. F. in a battery circuit is the combined E. M. F.'s of all the batteries in the circuit. So it is in the case of a magnetic circuit, the magneto-motive force (M. M. F.) which is effective in producing the magnetic lines is the combined magneto-motive forces of all the individual elements.

The magneto-motive force in an electro-magnet or solenoid depends upon two things: First, the amount of current passing through the wire of the coil, and second, the number of times the wire encircles the core, or, taking these two things together, the ampere turns. The effect is independent of the size, shape or composition of the wire (except, of course, as these may affect the current), or of the manner in which the turns are placed upon the core. It is also immaterial, so far as the resultant flux is concerned, what proportion exists between the number of turns and the amperes. For example: 25 turns of wire carrying 4 amperes would give the same results as 4 turns of wire carrying 25 amperes, the ampere turns in each case being 100.

If we were to pass a steady current through the wire of a coil we would find that a magnetic field would be produced. If we measured the strength of this field we would find a certain definite number of lines of force to each unit of area, the exact number depending on the magneto-motive force producing the field. If an iron core is placed inside of the coil and the number of magnetic lines per unit of area again ascertained it would be found that the number had greatly increased. This increase in the number of magnetic lines is the result of decreasing the resistance of the magnetic circuit. Just as every substance offers a certain resistance to the flow of an electric current, in a like manner every substance offers a certain resistance to the flow of magnetic lines. In the case of a magnetic circuit this resistance is called the "reluctance." Reluctance in a magnetic circuit and resistance in an electrical circuit are analagous with these exceptions: With a uniform temperature the resistance of an electrical conductor is independent of the amount of current flowing. In a magnetic conductor the reluctance varies and bears a certain relation to the number of magnetic lines present, or the magnetic flux.

The magnetic flux is inversely proportional to the reluctance, but is directly proportional to the permeability, the permeability being the reciprocal of the reluctance. In comparing electrical conductors we generally consider their conductivities, the conductivity being the reciprocal of the resistance; for instance, if a certain conductor has a resistance of 2 ohms and another conductor of the same length has a resistance of 4 ohms, their conductivities are as ½ (.5) is to ¼ (.25), or in other words, the conductivity of the first is twice the conductivity of the second.

The same relation holds true with permeability in a magnetic circuit; the higher the permeability, the greater the number of magnetic lines produced with a given magnetizing force. The permeability of air is considered as unity. The permeability of any other substance is the ratio between the number of lines of force produced with a given magnetizing power when the magnetic circuit is composed of the substance in question and when it is composed of air.

If a coil of wire comprising a certain number of ampere turns produced 20 lines of force per unit area in air and 2,000 magnetic lines when an iron core was used, the permeability of the iron core would be 2,000/20, or 100.

The permeability of the iron, as has already been stated, varies according to the degree of saturation. If we were to magnetize a piece of iron to a low degree by allowing a small current to flow through the wire of the coil surrounding it, we would find a certain number of lines to be produced in the iron core. If, by gradual steps, we increased the magnetizing current and at each step determined the number of lines produced, we would notice that the resulting magnetism would at first increase in about the same proportion as we increased our magnetizing current. After a certain point was reached the iron would become saturated and an increase in the exciting current would cause very little increase in the magnetic lines. The permeability is, therefore, higher when the iron is only slightly magnetized and lower when we approach saturation.

The curves, Fig. 16, show the behavior of several metals under various magnetizing forces. The ampere turns per inch are plotted along the horizontal line and the resulting magnetic lines per square inch along the vertical lines. An examination of the curves will show that, in the case of wrought iron, for instance, when the metal is first magnetized, a certain number of magnetic lines will be produced per square inch. As we increase the magnetizing current we find that the resulting magnetism increases very rapidly until we arrive at the point where the metal approaches saturation. Beyond this point an increase in the ampere turns results in only a slight increase in the magnetic lines.

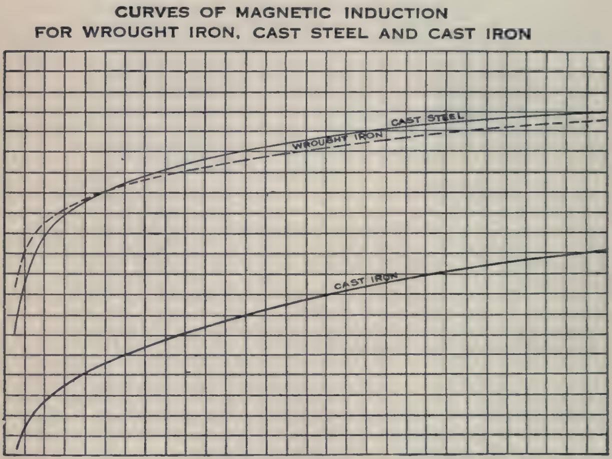


Figure 16.

In designing an electro-magnet of any kind, such as the field coils of a dynamo, for instance, this peculiarity of the iron must be taken into consideration and it would, generally, be inadvisable to work the iron much beyond the point where it reaches saturation.

With cast iron it will be seen that a given magnetizing force produces a much smaller magnetic flux density than with wrought iron. It is usual in the design of magnets to ascertain the exact behavior of the iron which it is intended to use so that its exact action under various magnetizing forces is known.

In an electrical circuit, by insulating the conductors or surrounding them with materials of high resistance, we may confine the flow of current to certain definite paths. This cannot be done with a magnetic circuit, as there is no known insulator for magnetic lines of force. This can be seen by the location of the filings in Fig. 15.

The lines of force leave the magnet over its entire length and are not confined entirely within the metal. Outside of iron and the magnetic metals all materials such as air, wood, brass, etc., possess the same reluctance and, so far as the effects shown in Fig. 15 are concerned, they would be identical were the magnet surrounded by any of these materials. While it is impossible to insulate the path of the magnetic lines, we may by providing paths of low resistance confine them to certain definite directions.

The reluctance of a magnetic circuit increases directly with the length and inversely with the cross section, just as the resistance of an electrical conductor increases with its length and decreases with its cross section. As an example, doubling the length of a magnetic circuit doubles the reluctance and doubling the cross section halves the reluctance.

Taking into consideration the several properties of the magnetic circuit just described, it has probably already been seen that the principles of Ohms law as applied to electrical circuits will also apply to the magnetic circuit. For the electrical circuit Ohms law is:

$$\text{Amperes} = \frac{\text{Electro-motive force}}{\text{Resistance}}$$

For the magnetic circuit this law would apply:

$$\text{Magnetic flux} = \frac{\text{Magneto-motive force}}{\text{Reluctance}}$$

Fig. 17 shows the magnetic circuit in a bi-polar dynamo. The magneto-motive force is supplied by the windings on the two field magnets. The reluctance of the magnetic circuit is determined by the composition of the metal of the frame and armature, the length and cross-section of the several parts of the magnetic circuit, the joints in the metal frame and the air gap on either side of the armature. The magnetic flux, therefore, is the result of these factors and it can be increased by increasing the exciting turns, which will increase the magneto-motive force, or by decreasing the reluctance by providing a suitable metal, or by increasing the cross-section of the magnetic path or by decreasing the loss due to the mechanical joints and the air gaps.

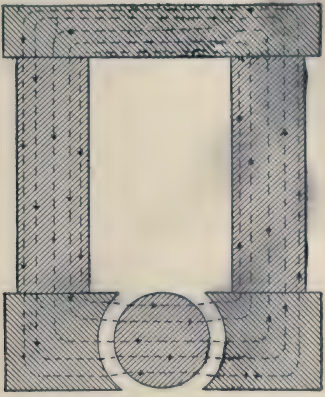


Figure 17.

FOUCAULT CURRENTS.

We have seen how an E. M. F. is induced in a wire moving in a magnetic field. Such induction takes place not only in the conductors wound upon the core, but within the iron of the core itself. If an armature made up of a solid piece of iron is revolved in a magnetic field, as shown in Fig. 18, currents of electricity will circulate in the iron as indicated by the broken lines and arrow heads. If the speed of the armature be very great these currents will be of considerable strength and will heat the iron and consume energy. Such currents can never be entirely prevented, but they can be reduced to a minimum by laminating the core. Instead of the armature being made up of one solid iron core, it is made up of a number of thin plates of the proper dimensions. These plates are usually 1/100 to 1/25 of an inch thick. They are pressed together after first having been insulated from each other either by the oxide which forms on the surface of the iron, or by sheets of paper or suitable varnish. These plates or punchings are put on the armature shaft so that they lie in a line with the lines of force and at right angles to the direction in which the induced currents would flow. In an armature made up in this manner the induced currents can circulate only in the individual disks, and, if these are thin, these currents will amount to but very little.

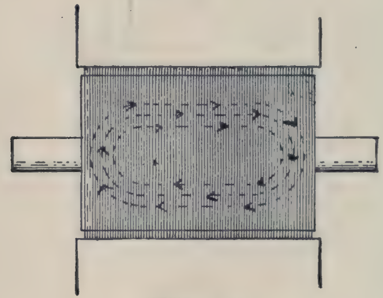


Figure 18.

These eddy currents are also produced in the pole pieces owing to the variation in the magnetic field which occurs when the armature rotates. Especially is this the case with slotted armatures.

HYSTERISIS.

This is another of the troublesome factors in armature construction. Iron, in general, has the property of retaining some of its magnetism; that is, when the magnetizing force is withdrawn not all the magnetism leaves the iron. The remaining magnetism must be destroyed when a current in the opposite direction is set up around the coil. Where the magnetizing force is always in the same direction hysterisis does no harm; but, if the magnetism is rapidly reversing, its effects are quite noticeable. An inspection of Fig. 19 will show us the effects hysterisis has upon an armature. Since the lines of force move from a north pole to a south pole, the relative polarity of the fields and armature will be, at any instant, as indicated. But the armature is in constant motion; therefore the polarity of any given part of the iron of which the core is constructed will be constantly changing from one polarity to the other. If the iron is of

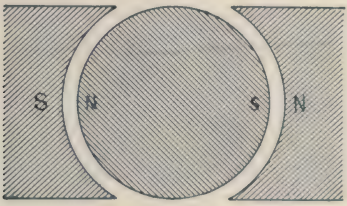


Figure 19.

such a quality that it retains a large amount of magnetism it will heat up considerably, and, since the number of reversals of the magnetism are in proportion to the number of revolutions, the greater the speed the greater will be the effect of hysterisis. To reduce the troubles from hysterisis to a minimum it is necessary to use a very soft annealed iron or steel.

CHAPTER II.

ARMATURES—MECHANICAL CONSIDERATIONS.

Economy of construction demands that an armature be run at a high rate of speed. In any armature the output in volts can be increased by simply increasing the speed; the output in amperes cannot be so increased unless at the same time larger wires are used. If, however, in any armature we should increase the size of the wires so that fewer turns would be upon it we can compensate for the consequent loss in voltage by increasing the speed and this, with the same armature, also increases the output in amperes. It will be seen that speed is an important item in the construction of any armature. To operate at a high rate of speed requires the very best workmanship and mechanical construction.

Whenever a high speed is to be used it is of the utmost importance to see that the armature is well balanced. Any rotating piece of machinery is said to be out of balance when one side is heavier than the other. This condition of being out of balance will manifest itself by a more or less severe jarring and shaking of the frame upon which it rests when running.

Whether an armature is in balance while at rest can be easily determined by placing it upon two knife edges, as shown in Fig. 20. If these edges are perfectly level the armature will roll to one side or the other until the heaviest part is at the bottom. If the diameter of the armature is small compared to its length this test will not be very sensitive. If the diameter is great as compared to its length a small excess of weight on one side will cause it to roll over. If a very good balance for high speed is to be obtained this method must not be relied upon. In such a case the armature should be placed in bearings and run at its proper speed. If there is much jarring or shaking the armature is out of balance and this must be rectified.

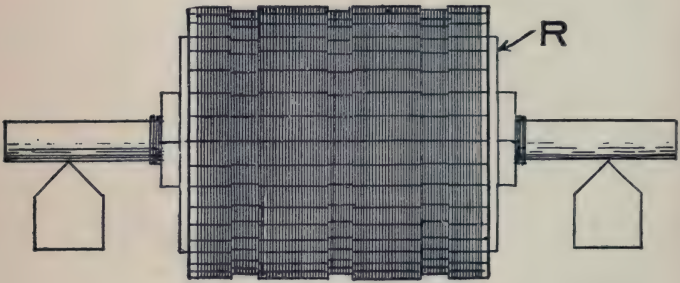


Figure 20.

It is obvious that this had best be done before any wire is placed on the core. How it may come about that the armature may be perfectly balanced statically and yet almost unfit for the work while in operation at a high rate of speed can be seen from Fig. 21. If there is an excess of weight at 1 this may be perfectly balanced for a state of rest by the addition of a similar weight at 2. If, however, the armature is revolved at a high rate of speed there will be a tendency to strain the shaft as indicated by the dotted lines.

An armature out of balance is rectified by adding weights at different places until the proper amount is found. This will make itself evident by the smooth running. If possible the weights should now be removed and an equal weight of metal removed from the armature at the side opposite to that at which it was found necessary to add weight. If, for instance, it was found necessary to add one pound at 3, Fig. 21, the same result can be obtained by removing one pound at 1.

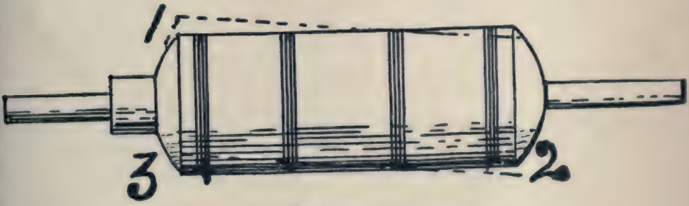


Figure 21.

In speaking of high speeds it must be understood that it is not, necessarily, a great number of revolutions that are required to produce a certain E. M. F. What is required is that a certain number of conductors shall cut through the lines of force surrounding the pole pieces in a given length of time. As these conductors are always located on the periphery of the armature, it is the speed of this part that counts. The greater the diameter of the armature, therefore, the lower the speed of the shaft. Other things being equal, the capacity of an armature is directly proportional to its length. We may therefore choose whether we shall increase the capacity of a machine by increasing the length of the armature or the diameter.

If the length of the armature is too great there is some danger that the shaft will bend, not only from centrifugal force to which it is subject, but also from the magnetic attraction of the pole pieces if it is not well centered. For this reason armature shafts are often made as shown in Fig. 22.

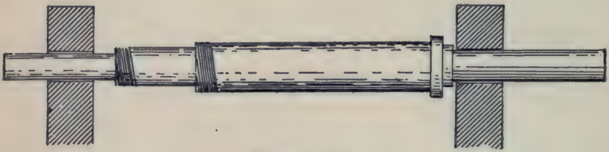


Figure 22.

The centering of an armature is an important point. It rests between two powerful magnets. If it is exactly in the center the attraction of one pole piece will neutralize that of the other, but if it is the least bit out of center there will be a strong attraction to one side and this will greatly add to the friction. The bearings and pole pieces should be in such relation to each other that the armature can be truly centered and that there will be no likelihood of their becoming loosened. The bearings should have sufficient surface so that the wear will be a minimum for wear will quickly bring an armature out of the center. Bearings should, furthermore, not be of iron or steel. If the shaft is constructed of the same material there may be some magnetic attraction between the shaft and the bearing which would increase the friction and cause heating. Bearings should also be out of line of the magnetic circuit, as such magnetization will cause the shaft to generate foucault currents which will heat it and in turn heat the bearings. The shaft should also be protected by shields which will prevent oil from running along it and getting into the wires on the armature. The lateral play which is essential to the smooth running of the shaft can be obtained by lining up the shaft after the belt is put on. This lateral play also tends to distribute the wearing surface of the brushes over the surface of the commutator, thereby giving a more uniform contact surface. It is quite evident that if the armature was made to run without this lateral movement the brushes would always bear on the same part of the commutator and a ridge would soon be worn in it.

The inexperienced mechanic should be warned not to skip lightly over any part of the work. While, of course, there is no visible connection between the armature and the pole pieces of the machine, and while it seems to be turning free and easy, it must be borne in mind that the force exerted upon the armature is, nevertheless, just as great as though a friction clutch of the capacity of the armature were applied to the periphery of the armature. Furthermore, in the case of a sudden overload or short circuit, or too rapid starting in the case of a motor, the force applied is almost as severe as the blow of a hammer.

MECHANICAL CONSTRUCTION OF THE ARMATURE.

All good armatures are made up of a number of punchings similar to those shown in Figure 23. These punchings are made of soft iron or steel. The figures illustrate the different forms of slots used in connection with armatures. Into these slots the wires are wound as will be hereafter explained. The punchings are usually made of thin iron with some form of insulation provided between them to reduce the foucault currents. This insulation is obtained by inserting layers of thin paper between the sheets of metal or by coating the punchings themselves. Paper and similar materials used for this purpose will in time char from the heat of the armature and work

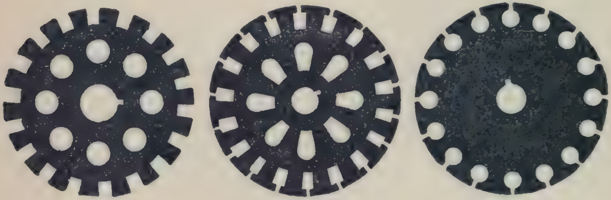


Figure 23.

out and tend to loosen the armature. Care should also be exercised in the use of an insulating varnish, as some of these varnishes will soften from the heat of the armature and are thrown out on the pole pieces.

As many of the punchings as are necessary are slipped upon the shaft of the armature as indicated in Figure 20 and fastenened together with clamps shrunk upon the shaft or with large nuts screwed on the shaft. Bolts extending through the punchings are often used. These bolts must be insulated from the punchings, otherwise there will be a flow of current through the shaft, the body of the armature and the bolts. (See Figure 24.) It is well to remember that in laying out the armature and the means of fastening it to the shaft that the foucault currents will flow according to the principles of any other electrical circuit so that to keep these cur-

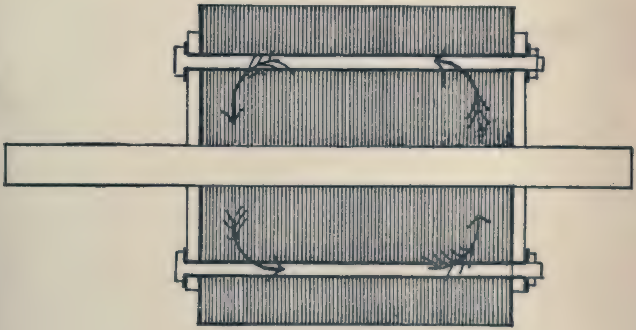


Figure 24.

rents to a minimum no electrical paths should be provided through the armature.

Where an armature is slotted as indicated in Figure 23 some of the punchings are often made of smaller diameter than the rest, or are afterwards turned down as indicated in Figure 20. This is to allow room for the binding wires which are put on after the winding is completed. Sometimes the punchings are not slotted but are milled out and narrow bars of metal or wood inserted in the grooves as shown in Figure 25. These bars are for the purpose of keeping the wires from slipping. If of metal they must be insulated from the punchings for the same reason as was explained with the use of bolts.

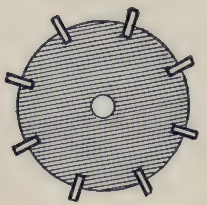


Figure 25.

In some cases the slots are made partially closed as shown. This makes it a little more difficult to insert the wires, but they are then held securely in place. Often these slots are made wedge shape and the tops closed by means of wood or fiber strips after the wires have been put in place. In some cases the slots containing the wires are entirely closed.

In slotted armatures, especially if the slots are deep, when the punchings are forced together that part of the punchings which projects beyond the ring R, Figure 20, is likely to bulge out. In order to prevent this a few pieces of extra heavy metal are obtained and used at the ends. One punching of insulating material is also generally used at each end.

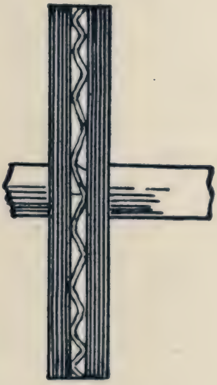


Figure 26.

For small armatures the punchings are generally left solid. With diameters of 18 inches or so openings are left. These openings lighten the armature and are also useful in ventilating it to reduce the heating. With very large armatures opportunities for radial ventilation must also be given. For this purpose some of the punchings are corrugated or otherwise arranged so that they allow air to pass from the center outward. When such pieces (see Figure 26) are used in connection with the openings shown in the punchings, the air drawn in at the sides escapes radially and thus helps to keep the armature cool. This is further illustrated in Figure 27, which shows one of the methods used by the Westinghouse Co.

The punchings are preferably made of metal ranging from 10 to 30 mils in thickness. The thinner the better so long as the metal can be easily handled. Punchings should be made as accurate as possible. Where it is necessary to turn down an armature to obtain perfect roundness the foucault current losses are greatly increased. This is due to the fact that the cutting tool of a lathe has a tendency to bend over the edges of the thin punchings and cause an electrical contact which allows

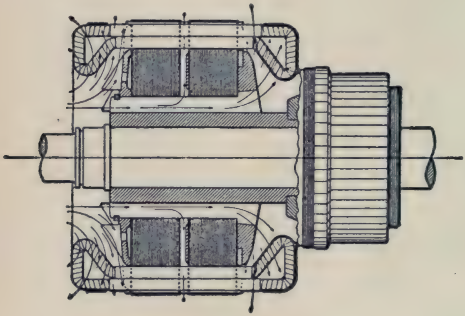


Figure 27.

current to flow. If it is necessary to smooth down an armature this work is best done with a sharp file or with an emery wheel. For this purpose the armature is centered in a lathe and the emery wheel mounted so as to revolve in the opposite direction to that of the armature and cut away the high portions of it.

CHAPTER III.

ARMATURE WINDINGS—DIAGRAMS.

The subject of armature winding resolves itself into a question of the proper placing of the armature conductors upon the core, the correct number of conductors, and the exact method of connecting together the various conductors themselves and the conductors and the commutator segments.

The proper placing of the conductors, and the number of conductors which should be used, will be shown for the different cases in the examples following. In connecting together the various armature conductors it is necessary, in order to secure satisfactory results, that certain rules be followed.

It is evident that when two brushes are used there must be two paths in parallel through the armature from brush to brush, as shown in Figure 28. Figure 28 is a developed view of the armature conductors and pole pieces, and is that view which would be obtained were a person to take up a position corresponding to that occupied by the armature shaft and make a complete revolution, thus bringing into view consecutively all the armature conductors and the pole pieces. This method of showing the armature admits of a clearer understanding of the various conditions and will be used in the illustrations following. The solid lines represent the active conductors on the face of the armature and the dotted lines the inactive conductors on the inside of the armature. The small squares at the top represent the commutator segments and the cross sections the pole pieces. Arrows indicate the direction of flow of the induced current and the direction of motion of the conductors.

By observing the direction of current flow in the several conductors it will be seen that there is one commutator segment toward which the current in the two conductors connected to it flows. Likewise, another commutator segment will be found where current flows away from it. These are the proper brush locations and are designated in the diagram by the positive and negative signs. Figure 29 represents diagrammatically the two paths through this armature.

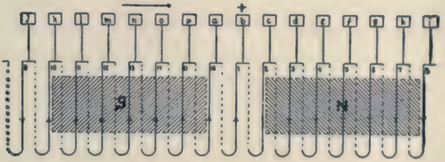


Figure 28.

Where four brushes are used there must be four paths in parallel from brush to brush, as shown in Figure 30, which is a development of the same armature winding as shown in Figure 28, but used with a four-pole field. Figure 31 represents diagrammatically the four paths through the armature.

It follows, therefore, that where two brushes are used there being two paths through the armature, it will be necessary, in order to obtain a symmetrical winding, that half the armature conductors be connected in series in each of these paths. With four brushes there will be four paths and one-fourth of the total number of armature conductors must be connected in series in each of these paths.

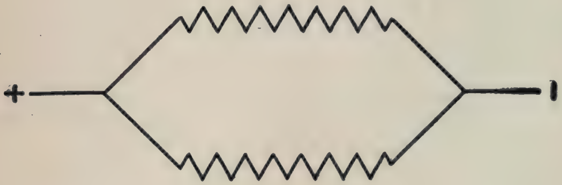


Figure 29.

It is also apparent that in each of these several paths only those conductors should be connected in series in which the induced current is additive. Furthermore, in order that equal potentials shall be produced, the conductors of each group must occupy similar positions relative to the pole pieces. This can be seen by an examination of the winding in Figure 44. As an illustration, assume that the conductors which lie directly under the center of the pole pieces are developing an E. M. F. of 2 volts, those nearer the edge of the pole piece 1 volt and those between the poles 0 volts. If the four paths between the two positive and negative brushes are now followed out it will be seen that each group of conductors is developing a difference of potential of four volts.

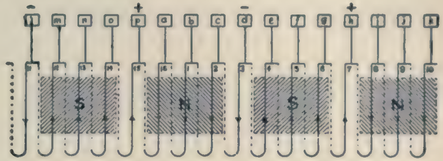


Figure 30.

As a general rule then, in connecting together the armature conductors, these points must be observed:

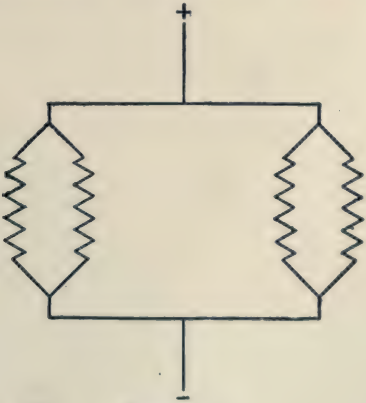


Figure 31.

Only those conductors must be connected together to form a group in which the E. M. F.'s are additive; there must be equal numbers of conductors in each group; the conductors of each group must occupy similar positions in relation to the pole pieces. The various factors which enter into the design of an armature sometimes make an exact compliance with these general rules inadvisable. The exceptions will be pointed out in the descriptions following.

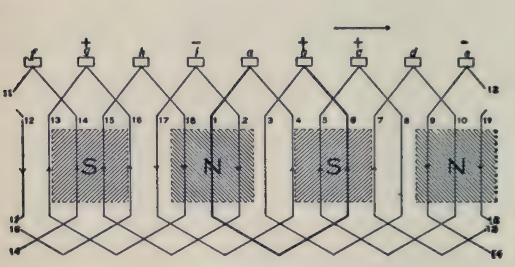


Figure 32.

Figures 32 and 33 represent the development of a drum wound armature, having 18 conductors and a four-pole field. The number of conductors and the method of connecting the conductors together at the rear of the armature (shown in the development by the connections at the lower part of the figures) are identical. The connections between the conductors, and between the conductors and the commutator segments are not the same in each case. As we have already seen, it is necessary in connecting together conductors to form a group that the E. M. F.'s be additive.

In Figure 32 if we start from commutator segment *i*, which in the position shown is the point where the current enters the armature, we will find by tracing out the circuit that current flows through conductors 17, 4, segment *a*, conductors 1 and 6 and out at segment *b*. The path through the armature between the two brushes is through conductors lying under adjacent north and south poles, and the winding at each turn around the armature laps back to a commutator segment adjacent to the one from which it started. This winding is known as the "lap" winding.

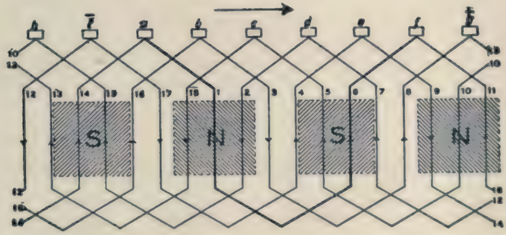


Figure 33.

It will be noticed that with a lap winding in a four-pole field there are four brushes. Likewise, in a six-pole field there would be six brushes; the lap winding requiring as many brushes as there are poles.

If we now trace out the circuits in Figure 33 it will be observed that, starting from the negative brush, the following path is followed: Segment *i*, conductors 17-4, segment *e*, conductors 9-14, segment *a*, when we arrive at the commutator segment adjacent to the one from which we started, but in this case we have passed through a conductor under each pole piece. This winding instead of lapping back as in the previous case progresses in a regular manner around the armature in a wave-like path and is therefore known as a "wave winding." By tracing out the balance of the circuit it will be found that there are two paths through the armature from brush to brush and only two brushes are required.

As has previously been stated in connecting together the conductors around the armature certain definite rules must be followed. A formula developed by Arnold, which is applicable to practically all cases of armature winding, gives us a convenient means of determining the proper connections to comply with these rules. This formula is given below.

$$y=\frac{2}{n}\left(\frac{z}{b}\pm a\right)$$

where y=the pitch,

z=total number of conductors,

b=number of conductors in one element of winding,

a=a constant,

n=number of poles.

To thoroughly understand the application of this formula some explanation of the various factors is necessary. The term z denotes the total number of conductors around the armature. In the diagrams shown in this chapter the armature conductors are represented as single lines or single conductors. For obvious reasons an armature wound with single conductors, especially if only a few conductors were used, would be impractical; but it is evident that if each coil consisted of a number of turns and the ends of the coil were connected as shown by the lines in the diagrams, the effect, so far as the armature connections are concerned, would be the same as if only one turn was used. In determining the value of z, therefore, we ignore the actual total number of conductors and consider each coil as a single turn around the armature. In Figure 40 $z=16$; in Figure 64 $z=18$.

An element of the winding is that portion of the winding between two commutator bars. The term b, therefore, represents the number of conductors between two commutator segments. In this case, as in the case of the total number of conductors, we consider each coil as one conductor. In Figure 40 $b=1$; in Figure 62 $b=2$.

The number of poles is denoted by the term n. In a bi-polar machine $n=2$; in a four-pole machine $n=4$, etc.

The value of a for multi-polar machines determines the number of branchings of the circuits through the armature. If $a=1$, there will be a single branching or two circuits in parallel as shown in Figure 29. If $a=2$, there will be two branchings or four circuits in parallel through the armature as shown in Figure 31.

The term y indicates the pitch or spacing, or the number of conductors passed over in connecting together two conductors. The meaning of the term y can be better understood by referring to Figure 34, which represents the end view of an armature with 12 conductors and 12 winding spaces. If the value of y is taken as 5 and we wish to know what conductor 1 should be connected to, we begin to count with conductor 2 and count five conductors, which would bring us to conductor 6, this being the 5th conductor or the 5th winding space from conductor 1. Conductor 3 would connect to conductor 8. If the value of y is 7, conductor 1 would connect to conductor 8; conductor 3 to conductor 10, etc.

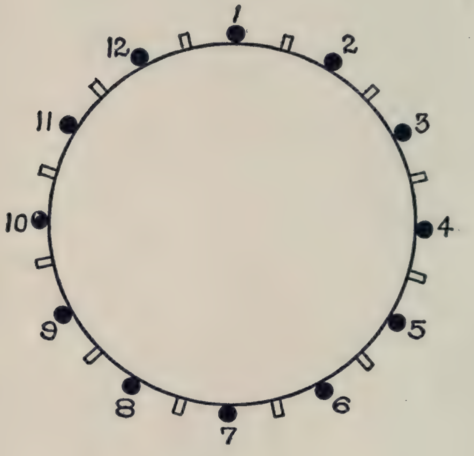


Figure 34.

To determine the number of conductors when we have a given pitch we transpose the terms of the formula which gives us

$$z=b\left(y\frac{n}{2}\pm a\right).$$

The application of this formula for the various classes of winding will be shown in the examples following:

Armature windings are divided into three general classes, as follows:

Ring wound armatures,
Drum wound armatures,
Disk wound armatures.

These windings are again subdivided into what are known as open coil windings, where the winding forms an open circuit; and closed coil windings, where the winding forms a closed circuit.

The ring winding and drum winding are in most general use and each system will be described in detail. As the disk winding has not had any extensive application in this country no further explanation of it will be given. On direct current machines the windings are generally of the closed coil type, although the open coil type of armature is employed on some constant current, arc lighting machines. This type of armature is open to the objection that sparking at the brushes is excessive and some special means must always be provided to reduce it.

RING WOUND ARMATURES.

The ring armature, or as it is commonly called, the gramme ring armature, comprises an iron core in the shape of a ring upon which the conductors which are to convey the current are wound. Figure 35 shows a simple form of ring winding. This figure also shows the magnetic circuit of this form of armature when used with a two-pole field. The coils are wound on separately, the wire being carried over the outside of the iron core, then back through the center opening and again around the outside of the core, this operation being repeated until all the wire for that individual section is wound on. The adjacent coil is then wound on in the same manner, the ends of each coil being brought out to the

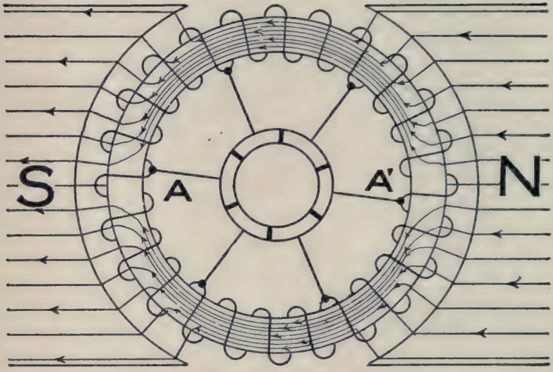


Figure 35.

side of the armature on which the commutator is to be placed. When the armature is completely wound the end of each coil is connected to the beginning of the coil next to it, the winding, therefore, forming a continuous spiral encircling the iron core. Taps are brought down from the point of connection of the coils and connect to the commutator.

There are various advantages and disadvantages to this class of winding which must be taken into consideration in determining whether it is a suitable form to use.

As only those conductors which cut lines of force are active in the production of current it is evident that the conductors which lie on the inner side of the iron ring serve no useful purpose so far as the generation of current is concerned. Numerous attempts have been made to utilize this part of the winding by making the pole pieces extend around the ring in such a manner that lines of force will pass to the inside of the ring; also by arranging an additional pole piece on the inside of the armature, but mechanical considerations make these devices impractical.

The inactive wire on the inside of the ring armature forms one of the greatest disadvantages of this class of winding, especially where the armature carries heavy currents. In arc lighting machines, where a comparatively small current is used, this loss is not of so great importance and is entirely outweighed by the several advantages as will appear after further consideration.

In selecting the type and form of armature for the design of a certain machine it is well to remember that with armatures of the ring type the inactive conductors on the inside of the ring become proportionally less as compared with a drum armature where the ring is great in diameter. The cross connections at the end of a drum armature also form an inactive part of the armature circuit and the loss from these conductors becomes proportionally large where the armature is of a great diameter. This may be better understood by reference to Figures 36, 37, 38 and 39, where exaggerated shapes are shown.

Figure 36.

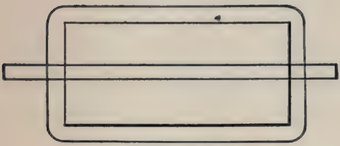
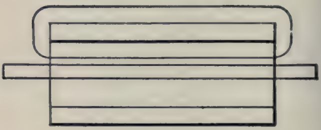


Figure 37.



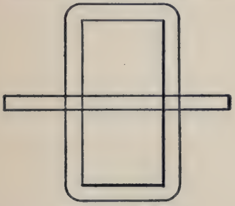


Figure 39.

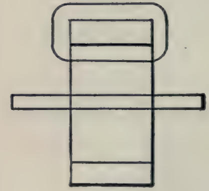


Figure 38.

With the ring armature each individual coil is generating at any instant an electromotive force which is proportional to the number of lines of force being cut by that coil. The difference of potential between conductors which lie side by side increases as we leave the point of commutation and becomes a maximum between those conductors which are in the strongest part of the field. It is evident that the total E. M. F. developed by the armature is spread out in a regular manner over each set of coils lying between a set of brushes and it is also plain that there can never be any very great difference of potential between adjacent conductors, nor between adjacent commutator segments. By increasing the number of coils the number of commutator segments is likewise increased and the difference of potential between adjacent commutator segments and adjacent coils is greatly reduced.

Another point of advantage in this type of winding lies in the absence of crosses between wires of opposite polarity, both in the coils themselves and in the taps extending to the commutator. This will be more apparent when we come to the consideration of drum windings.

Other advantages pertaining to this class of winding are as follows:

As it is possible to increase the diameter of the armature without greatly increasing its weight a much higher velocity can be obtained in the moving conductor with a corresponding increase in the E. M. F. produced.

A defective coil can be easily detected and easily replaced without disturbing the balance of the winding.

In case of emergency a defective coil can sometimes be cut out and the machine still operated.

Better ventilation due to the open style of construction.

Its disadvantages in addition to those already mentioned are:

The resistance of the magnetic circuit is increased owing to the shape of the armature. See Figure 35.

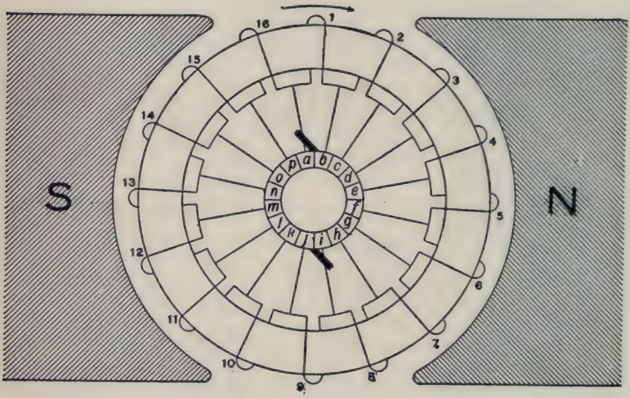
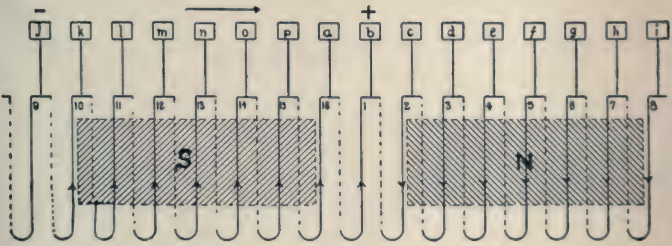


Figure 40.

A ring armature requires more work to wind as each coil has to be wound on by hand and is, therefore, more expensive.

While all ring armatures are wound in practically the same manner, the winding consisting of a number of coils each of which is wound on separately, the connections between the coils vary in the different types of windings.

Figure 40 shows the simplest form of ring winding as used with a bi-polar field. While only 16 conductors are shown it is evident that each coil, instead of having but one turn of wire, could consist of a number of turns, or the number of coils themselves could be greatly increased. To simplify the drawing, and to make the tracing out of the circuits easier, the neutral point or point of commutation in this figure, and in the figures following, has been assumed to lie directly between the pole pieces. It will, as has already been explained, be shifted in the direction of rotation in the case of a dynamo, and in the reverse direction in the case of a motor. Figure 41 shows a development of the winding of Figure 40.



igure 41.

Figure 42 shows a ring armature with a four pole field. The armature connections remain as before, but there are now four brush positions instead of two. The resistance of the armature is only one-fourth of what it is with a two pole field and the carrying capacity is doubled. As there are four paths through the armature, and each of these paths must consist of an equal number of conductors, the total number of conductors

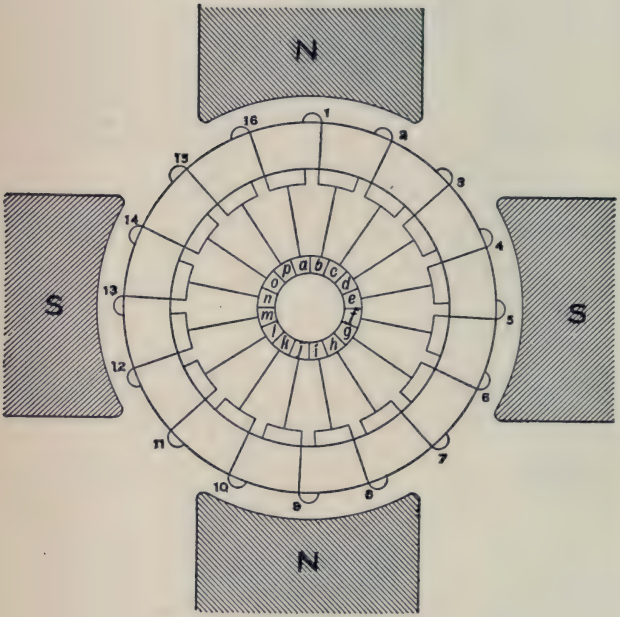


Figure 42.

(or coils) should be a multiple of the number of pole pieces. For instance: with a four pole field there could be 16, 20, 24, etc., conductors.

With an armature connected according to the plan shown in Figure 42 it is necessary, in order that equal

E. M. F.'s be generated in each of the four sections of the armature winding, that all four poles be of equal strength. In machines of irregular design the magnetic circuits through the pole pieces may be of unequal proportions, this resulting in an unequal distribution of the lines of force, with a corresponding inequality in the E. M. F.'s developed in each series of coils on the armature.

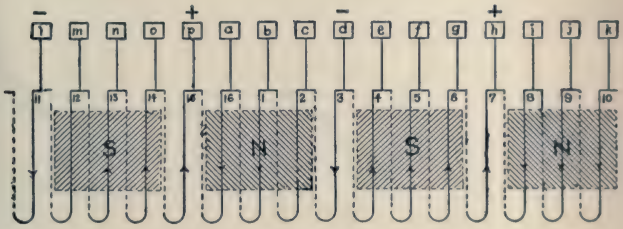


Figure 43.

To overcome this objectionable feature the armature may be connected as shown in Figure 44. The coils which are connected in series now lie under adjacent pole pieces instead of under only one pole piece with the result that the E. M. F. developed by each series of coils is more uniform even if the poles are of different strengths.

Four brushes are used, but the number of commutator segments is now reduced to eight, or one half the number used with the previous winding. The difference of potential between adjacent commutator segments is greatly increased and likewise the difference of potential between adjacent coils. There are also numerous crosses between the conductors connecting the various coils. This is, of course, objectionable as a better insulation is required.

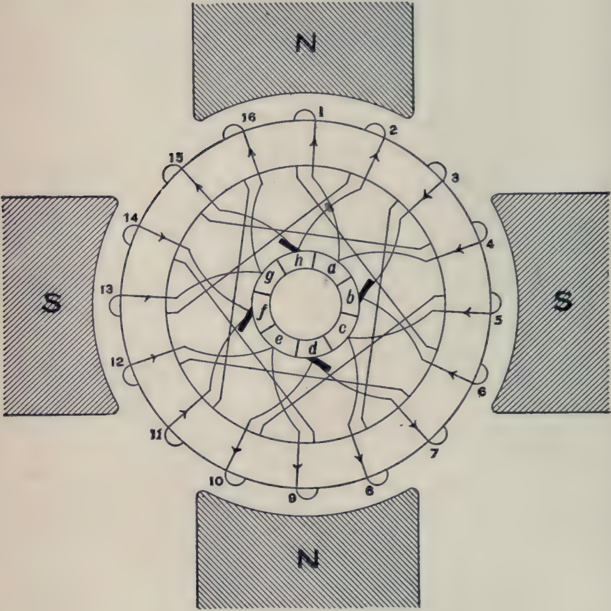


Figure 44.

It will be noticed that the end of coil 1 is connected to coil 6, coil 3 to coil 8, etc., each coil being connected to the fifth coil from it. It might at first glance be supposed that coil 1 should be connected to coil 5, these coils occupying similar positions relative to the pole pieces, but a little consideration will show that this connection would be wrong. If coil 1 and coil 5 were connected together the path through the armature would be as follows: Commutator segment *a* to coil 1, coil 1 to coil 5 to segment *b*, coil 3 coil 7 segment *c*. To make the connections uniform segment *c* would have to be connected to coil 5, but this coil is already connected to coil 1.

Tracing out the armature circuits between the positive and negative brushes will show that in each series the coils occupy similar positions relative to the pole pieces and equal E. M. F.'s are being developed.

In applying the formula previously stated to the winding scheme now being described we consider only those conductors which lie under one pair of poles and then give n (the number of poles) a value of 2. In Figure 14, $z = 8$ and $b = 2$, therefore $y = \frac{2}{2}\left(\frac{8}{2} \pm 1\right) = 3$ or 5. The formula written in simpler form for this case gives us $y = \frac{z}{n} \pm 1$, in which case z is taken as the total number of conductors. $y = \frac{16}{4} \pm 1 = 3$ or 5. As shown in the figure, the end of any coil is connected to the beginning of another coil 5 conductors, or 5 winding spaces, from it; as, conductor 1 to conductor 6, etc.

A method of connecting the armature similar to the one just described consists in connecting four coils in series, one coil under each pole piece, it being necessary, of course, to so connect the coils that the current induced in each coil will be added to that of the remaining coils. Connecting the armature in this manner still further adds to the uniformity of the E. M. F.'s induced in each series of coils as any irregularity in the strengths of the pole pieces affects all the branches alike. This connection is objectionable as the number of commutator segments would be reduced to one-fourth the number of coils and a corresponding increase in the difference of potential between the commutator segments would result.

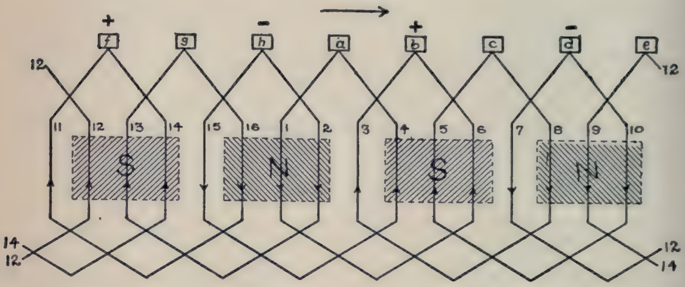


Figure 45.

Figure 46 illustrates a connection which is often used, especially where the machine is to deliver a heavy current at a low voltage. As will be seen by an examination of the diagram, the winding consists of two sets of windings similar to the one shown in Figure 40 placed side by side. The voltage developed by an armature connected in this manner would be the same as that developed by the single winding referred to above, all other conditions being the same, but the carrying capacity of the armature where the same size wire was used would be doubled. The brushes must be of such size as to make contact with the two adjacent segments at the same time; as a matter of fact the brushes generally cover from two and a half to three commutator segments with the intervening insulation. An important feature of this arrangement lies in the reduction of the sparking at the commutator owing to the fact that only half the current of the armature is commutated at one time, and

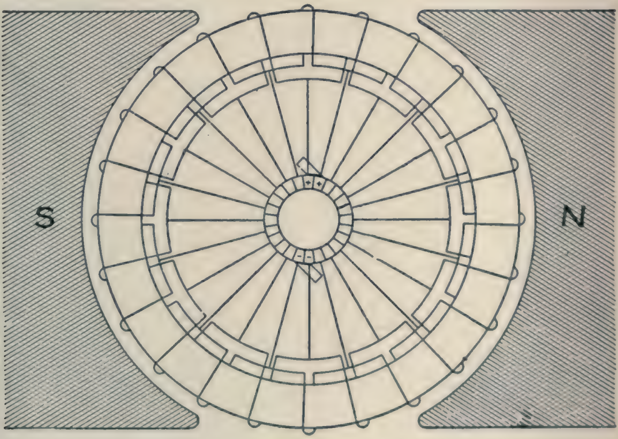


Figure 46.

also due to the considerable length of carbon brush between the short circuited sections. As the commutator segments connected to one set of coils are separated from each other by the segments of the other set, the possibility of short circuits across the commutator segments is greatly reduced. This style of winding is known as the "duplex," and a winding connected with three sets of coils in parallel is known as a "triplex" winding. This principle of winding can be applied to any of the schemes

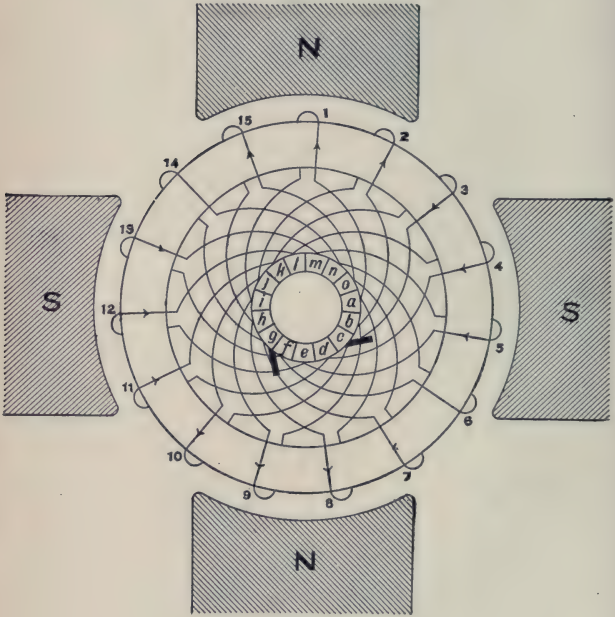


Figure 47.

shown and may be further extended to include any number of paths in parallel.

Figure 47 shows a plan of winding for a four pole field where, instead of four brushes, only two are used. In Figure 44 four brushes are used and the current follows four paths through the armature. In the present case there are only two paths through the armature from the positive to the negative brush, each circuit consisting of practically one-half the coils in the armature. This is known as a "wave" winding and will be described more in detail under the head of "Drum Windings." The connections may be so arranged that the coils in adjacent fields are connected together instead of coils in opposite fields. This latter connection is known as the "long" connection due to the fact that the conductors between the coils connected together are long, while the connection shown in Figure 44 is called the "short" connection.

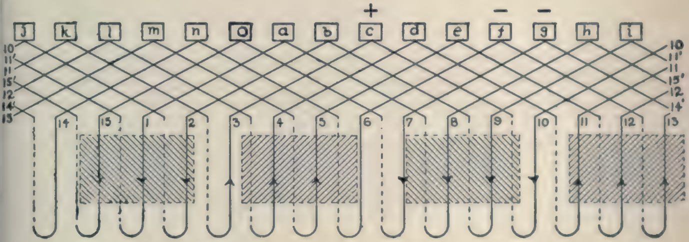


Figure 48.

It will be noticed that there are as many commutator segments as coils. For a winding of the kind shown (long connection) the number of coils must be odd if an even number of pairs of poles are employed. For instance, if four poles are used, there must be an odd number of coils. See Figure 47. If six poles are used, the number of coils can be even or odd. The expression for determining the correct spacing is as follows: $n=4$, $z=15$, $b=1$, $a=1$. $y=\frac{2}{4}\left(\frac{15}{1}\pm 1\right)=7$ or 8. As for example, in Figure 47 the beginning of coil 1 is connected to the end of coil 8; coil 2 to coil 9, etc., the spacing being 7.

OPEN CIRCUIT, RING WOUND ARMATURES.

Open circuit, ring wound armatures for the generation of direct current are used only with series arc light generators. Figure 49 shows diagrammatically the circuits of a Brush armature with 8 coils. The commutator has, for clearness, been represented as segments of concentric circles. As actually constructed the commutator surrounds the armature shaft with brushes bearing on it in the usual manner.

The coils are wound on the core in the customary manner; i. e., all coils wound spirally in the same direction. The diametrically opposite coils are connected in series, the remaining ends being connected to the two commutator segments lying in the same circle, each segment extending around 3/8 of the circle. Each coil is, therefore, on open circuit twice during a revolution, and the commutator is so arranged that at the time of open circuit the coils are in the neutral position.

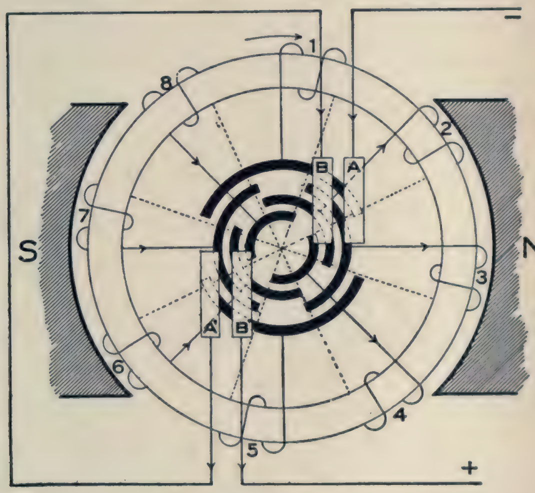


Figure 49.

For every two pairs of coils lying at right angles to each other there are four commutator segments and two brushes bearing on these commutator segments. The armature may, therefore, be wound with any number of coils so long as the total number is a multiple of four, and for every four coils there must be one set of brushes. This may be seen by referring to Figure 49 where there are eight coils and two sets of brushes.

Following out the circuit through the armature for the position shown in the figure it will be found that the current takes the following path: Brush A, coil 3, coil 7, brush A′, brush B, coils 2 and 4 in parallel, coils 6 and 8 in parallel, brush B′. It will be noticed that coils 1 and 5 are completely cut out of circuit when the armature is in the position shown, or when these coils are at the neutral point. It will also be noted that coils 3-7 which are generating their maximum E. M. F.'s are connected in series with coils 2-4 and coils 6-8, these latter coils being connected in parallel and generating only a portion of their maximum voltage.

As the armature revolves from the position shown coils 2-6 will come into the position of maximum voltage and these coils will then be connected in series with coils 1-3 and 5-7 which are in parallel. Coils 8-4 will be cut out. This action is continued as the armature revolves.

When the coils approach the position of open circuit a small current still flows through them as they are then in a live part of the field. As the contact between the brush and commutator segment is broken a considerable spark results. This is one of the peculiarities of an open coil machine and is evidenced by the severe flashing when the machine is operating.

DRUM WOUND ARMATURES.

The drum wound armature varies primarily from the ring wound armature in the shape of the core. While with the latter the core is in the shape of a ring or hollow cylinder, the conductors being wound spirally around the ring; with a drum wound armature the core is in the shape of a solid cylinder, or drum, and the conductors are wound around the outside surface in a direction parallel to the shaft. It must not be understood that the shape of the core alone determines the class of winding, for in some machines a drum winding is placed on a ring core. The distinguishing characteristic of the ring winding lies in the fact that the active conductors, which pass over the face of the armature from the front to the back, have their return conductors pass through the opening in the center of the ring from the back to the front, this part of the conductor being inactive in the production of current. In a drum winding the conductors in returning from the back to the front of the armature also pass over the face of the armature where they can cut lines of force and are also active in the production of current.

It will thus be seen that in the ring armature considerable of the wire is not only inactive in the production of current but at the same time is the cause of a loss of energy due to its resistance, with a resulting heating of the armature. This objectionable feature is to a great extent overcome in the drum wound armature. Less wire has to be used on a drum wound armature, other conditions being equal, than on a ring wound armature of the same capacity and the armature has a lower resistance.

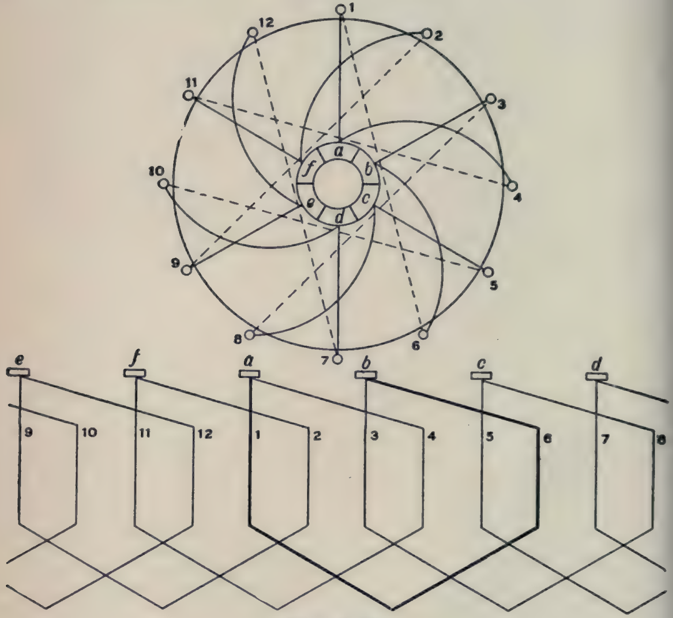


Figure 50.

At first glance the winding of a drum armature appears quite a difficult matter, but with a little study it will be found that it is not very much unlike that of the ring armature. A simple case of drum winding is shown in Figure 50. There are 12 conductors on the armature face and 6 commutator segments. Suppose we take a wire and connect it to segment *a* of the commutator. Now start to wind around the armature passing along 1 to the rear and returning by way of 6 to the front where we loop back to commutator segment *b*. Now make another turn around the armature by way of 3 and 8 returning to segment *c* of the commutator. Repeat this procedure, gradually turning the armature to the left. When the last turn, 11-4, has been made we come back to commutator bar *a*, the one from which we started. It will be seen that this operation consists simply in winding a wire spirally around the armature, bringing down loops to the commutator segments, and ending at the point from which we started.

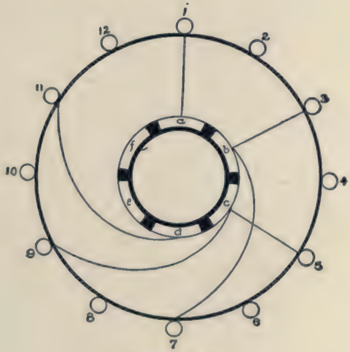


Figure 51.

The first question which presents itself to the student is: Why does not the wire which passes over space 1 return in the diametrically opposite space or 7? Consider for a moment the armature shown in Figure 51 which is identical with the last except for the winding. Suppose we start our wire at segment *a* of the commutator, pass to the rear of the armature along space 1 and return to the front of the armature along the diametrically opposite space, 7. Now loop back to segment *b* of the commutator and from there make another turn around the armature by way of 3-9 and back to segment *c*. From segment *c* make another loop around the armature by way of 5-11 and return to segment *d*. It will now be seen that we have made a complete revolution of the armature but have made connection to only half the commutator segments. In order to keep up the winding in a regular manner the wire from segment *d* should pass to the rear of the armature along space 7, but this space we find already occupied by the return of 1. If we were to continue with our winding from this point we would have to carry the wire from segment *d* to position 6 or 8, but this would result in an unbalanced winding.

It is plain that in order to keep the winding symmetrical the conductors in passing from the front to the rear of the armature must occupy the positions 1-3-5-7-9-11 and the even numbered positions will then serve as returns for these wires.

It will be noticed that in the example shown there are 6 coils, comprising 12 conductors, and 6 commutator segments. If the armature was so designed that we had an uneven number of coils, 7 coils with 14 conductors for instance, and 7 commutator segments, the rear connections could be made directly across a diameter as shown in Figure 52. This gives a perfectly symmetrical winding.

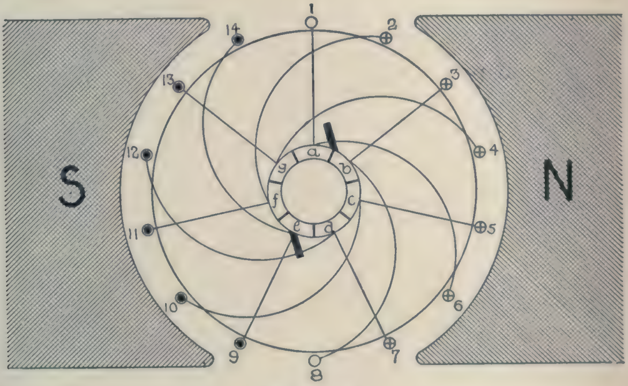


Figure 52.

For the sake of clearness the rear connections are not shown in the drawing but are made across a diameter; as, 1-8, 3-10, etc. The winding table for this armature is:

a- 1- 8-b
b- 3-10-c
c- 5-12-d
d- 7-14-e
e- 9- 2-f
f-11- 4-g
g-13- 6-a

An examination of the development (Figure 53) will show that there are two brush positions, the positive brush on segment *e* and the negative brush lapping over segments *a* and *b*. This is also shown in Figure 52. There being an odd number of commutator segments and the brushes being set in diametrically opposite positions, it is evident that only one coil can be short-circuited at a time and this coil can occupy the exact neutral position. See Figure 52, coil 1-8.

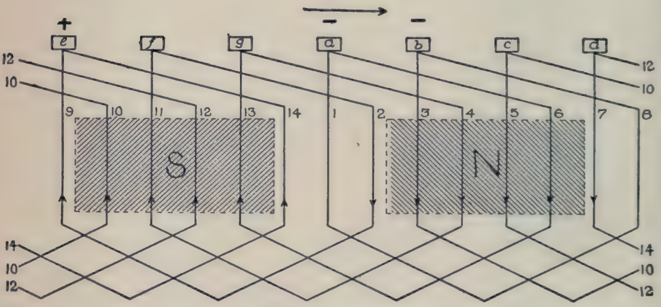


Figure 53.

The two paths through the armature from brush to brush are:

$$-\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{b-3-10-c-5-12-d-7-14-e}\\ \text{a-6-13-g-4-11-f-2-9-e}\end{array}\right\}+$$

Figure 54 shows the connections of a drum-wound armature having 8 coils comprising 16 conductors, and 8 commutator segments. While in the example shown each coil consists of only a single loop with two conductors, a coil may consist of a number of turns of wire, in which case the drawing indicates merely the connections for the beginning and end of each coil.

As has been previously explained the conductor which passes from the front to the rear of the armature along space 1 cannot be brought back to the front of the armature along the diametrically opposite space but must return along one of the spaces to the right or left of 9. The expression for determining the proper spacing for the return conductor is: $y = \frac{2}{n}\left(\frac{z}{b} \pm 1\right)$. In Figure 54, $n=2$, $z=16$, $b=2$, therefore $y = \frac{2}{2}\left(\frac{16}{2} \pm 1\right)$ $=7$ or 9. The spacing 7 has been used, each conductor

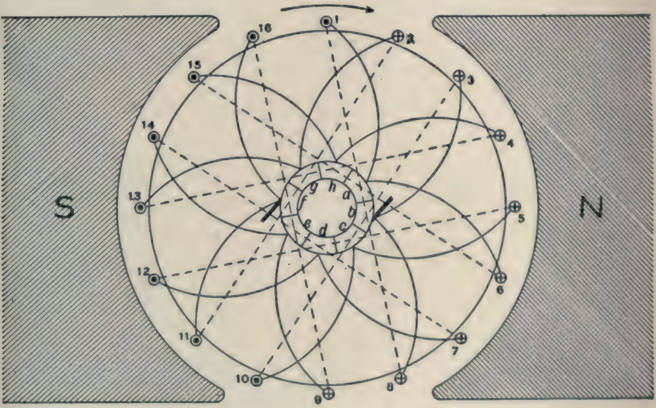


Figure 54.

being connected at the rear of the armature to one 7 spaces, or conductors, in advance of it; as, 1 to 8, 3 to 10, etc.

In winding the armature according to the plan shown, where each coil consists of a number of turns of wire, we would start with the wire connected to commutator segment *a* and wind along space 1 to the back of the armature, thence across the back to space 8, returning to the front of the armature along space 8 and across the front to space 1, continuing in this manner until all the wire of this coil is wound on. The end of the wire would now be brought to segment *b* of the commutator. The second coil is now wound on, starting from segment *b* and winding to the back of the armature along space 3, across the back to space 10, to the front along space 10 and across the front to space 3, con-

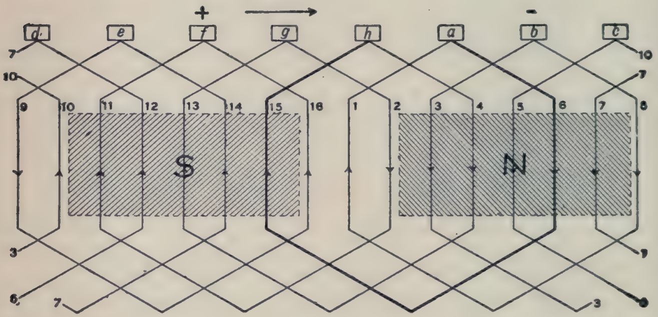


Figure 55.

tinuing the winding until this coil is also wound on. The end of this coil is now brought to commutator segment *c*. The remaining coils are now wound on in the spaces indicated.

In the practical operation of winding an armature the commutator is generally left off during the process of winding, the beginning and end of each coil being brought out and connected to the commutator after the armature is completely wound. A winding table which shows the several steps just described and which is very convenient both for winding and connecting is given below.

a-1- 8-b
b-3-10-c
c-5-12-d
d-7-14-e
e- 9-16-f
f-11- 2-g
g-13- 4-h
h-15-6-a

This table shows both the position of each coil and the commutator connections; for instance, segment *b* is connected to the end of coil 1-8 and to the beginning of coil 3-10.

The development of the armature winding, Figure 55, shows in a plainer manner the various connections made, also the direction of flow of the induced current in the various conductors. Following out the direction of flow of current it will be seen that at commutator segment *f* the current in both conductors flows toward the segment, while in segment *b* current flows away from the segment. These two positions are the proper points for the brush contacts.

With the armature connected as shown the brushes lie in an almost direct line with the pole pieces and the connections on the front of the armature are symmetrical. It is quite evident that we could, without changing the order of the winding, turn the commutator through an angle of 90°, thus bringing the brushes in a line with the space between the pole pieces. The front connections would not then be symmetrical, one connection to each coil being shortened and the other being lengthened. The mechanical design of some machines is such that locating the brushes in a line with the pole pieces brings them in an inaccessible position and the commutator is therefore shifted as described.

The two circuits through the armature from brush to brush for the position shown are:

$$-\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{b-3-10-c-5-12-d-7-14-e-9-16-f}\\ \text{b-8- 1-a-6-15-h-4-13-g-2-11-f}\end{array}\right\}+$$

As the armature revolves in the direction shown by the arrows the positive brush will short circuit commutator segments *e* and *f*, and the negative brush segments *a* and *b*. The two coils e-9-16-f and b-8-1-a will therefore be short circuited and the full difference of potential of the machine will exist between them. These coils being adjacent, with a smooth face armature where the coil consists of a number of turns of wire, wires of a very great difference of potential will lie side by side and the question of insulation between them becomes of considerable importance.

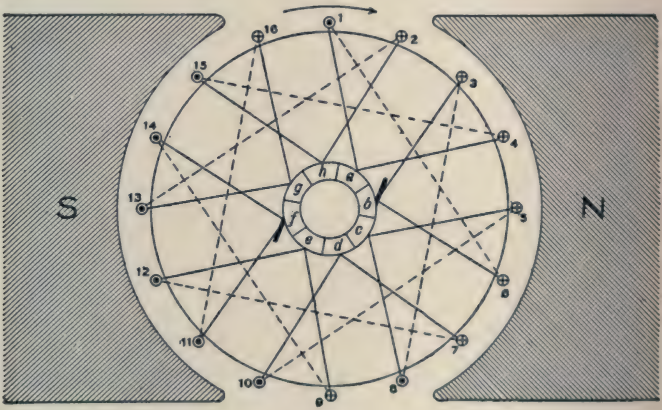


Figure 56.

Following out the paths on the development of the winding will also show that there are numerous crosses between wires of greatly different potentials. Compare with the ring armature winding shown in Figure 40.

To obviate some of the objectionable features of the winding just described the method of winding shown in Figure 56 is used. The value of y, or the pitch, is in

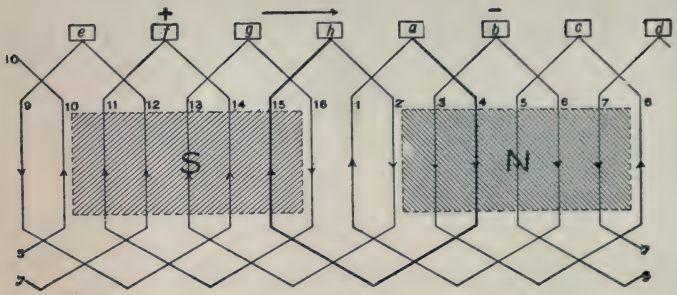


Figure 57.

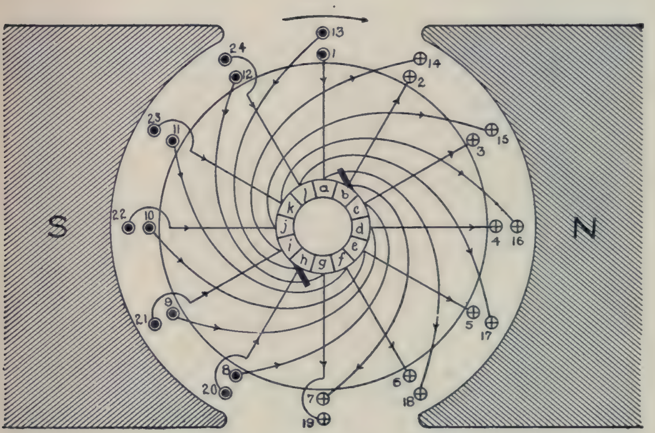


Figure 58.

this case 5, each conductor being connected at the rear of the armature to a conductor 5 spaces ahead of it. The coils short circuited by the brushes are now separated and there are fewer crosses between conductors at the end of the armature. Tracing out the circuits it will be seen that the current induced in some of the conductors is in opposition to that induced in the remaining conductors of the group. This has the effect of decreasing the demagnetizing effect of the armature turns. See Figure 56.

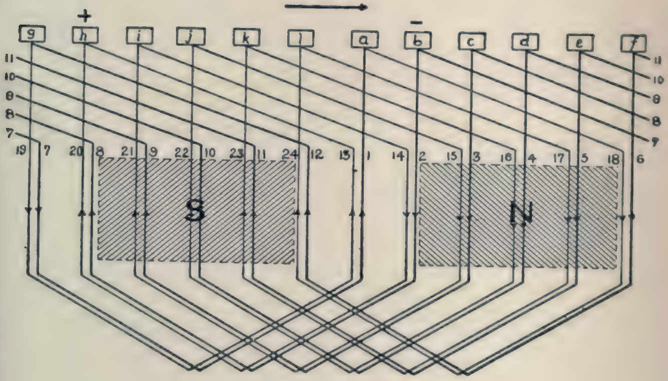


Figure 59.

The armatures which have so far been considered have had but one layer of wire. Figure 58 shows an armature with 24 conductors and 12 commutator segments with the wire placed on in two layers. The development of this winding is also shown in Figure 59. The winding table is given below:

a-1- 7-b
b-2- 8-c
c-3- 9-d
d-4-10-e
e-5-11-f
f-6-12-g
g-19-13-h
h-20-14-i
i-21-15-j
j-22-16-k
k-23-17-l
l-24-18-a

One of the first points that will be noticed is that each conductor in returning from the back of the armature to the front passes through the diametrically opposite space; coil 1-7, for instance. The rear connections are not shown as they would complicate the drawing. If we start to wind this armature from commutator segment *a*, winding coil 1-7, returning to segment *b* and continuing our winding from segment *b*, coil 2-8, segment *c*, coil 3-9, segment *d*, coil 4-10, segment *e*, coil 5-11, segment *f* to coil 6-12 it will be seen that we have made a complete revolution of the armature and have only made connection to half the commutator segments. We can complete the winding by continuing in the outer layers.

It is evident that the outer layer of coils will have a greater resistance than the inside layer, due to their increased length, and that they will also travel at a greater speed than the inside layer. The two paths through the armature from the negative to the positive brush vary between the coils in the outer layer and those in the inner layer and in one position of the armature one of the paths from brush to brush is through the coils of the inner layer exclusively, and the other path through the coils of the outer layer. This results in a constant variation between the E. M. F.'s induced in the two halves of the armature.

The two paths through the armature from brush to brush for the position shown are:

$$-\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{b-2-8-c-3-9-d-4-10-e-5-11-f-6-12-g-19-13-h}\\ \text{b-7-1-a-18-24-l-17-23-k-16-22-j-15-21-i-14-20-h}\end{array}\right\}+$$

As the amature moves forward from the position shown coil 1-7 is short circuited by the negative brush and coil 13-19 by the positive brush. It will thus be seen that a considerable difference of potential exists between the inner and outer layers of wire, and they will have to be well insulated from each other. It will also be seen that no great difference of potential exists between adjacent conductors. The two short circuited coils lying one above the other are both in the neutral part of the field at the time of commutation. This is somewhat of an advantage over the previous method shown where the short circuited coils are separated and are therefore not commutated at the exact neutral point.

If the number of conductors on the armature is such that one-fourth of the total number is odd, a winding will be obtained which will give in each of the paths between the brushes an equal number of conductors lying in the outer and inner layers, and the inequalities between the E. M. F.'s generated in the two halves of the armature will be avoided. Figure 60 shows the connections for an armature with 20 conductors; 1/4 of 20=5, an odd number. Tracing out the paths from the positive to the negative brush will show that in each of the paths there is an equal number of conductors in the two layers.

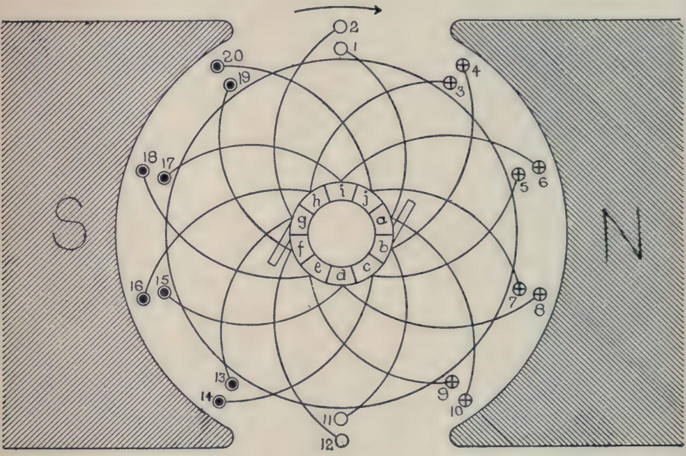


Figure 60.

Figure 62 shows a method of winding with two layers of wire where, instead of returning to the front of the armature over the diametrically opposite space, the return is made one space to the right. This has the effect

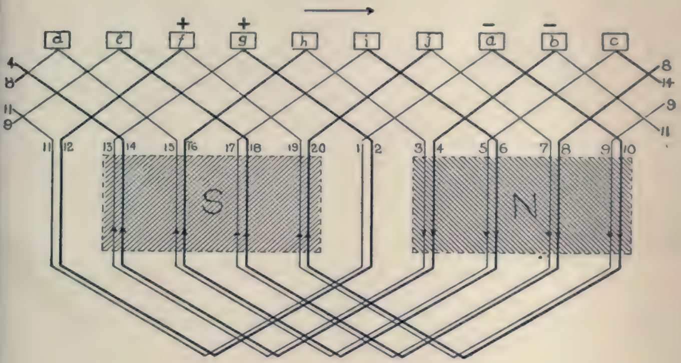


Figure 61.

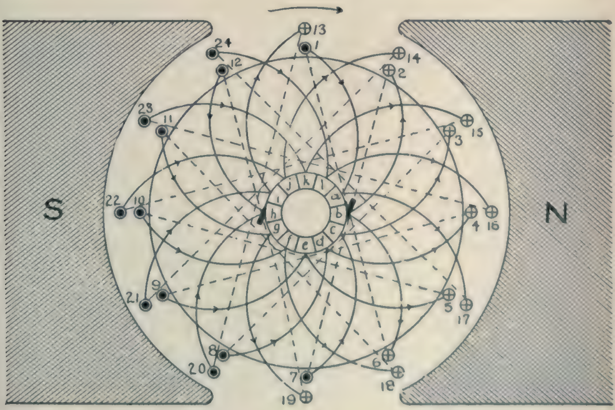


Figure 62.

of shortening the cross connections on the front and the rear of the armature with a result that less wire is used and the end connections are not as bulky as where the wire has to be carried around the armature shaft to get to the diametrically opposite space. The table for this winding is as follows:

a -1- 6-b
b- 2- 7-c
c- 3- 8-d
d- 4- 9-e
e- 5-10-f
f-18-11-g
g-19-12-h
h-20-13-i
i-21-14-j
j-22-15-k
k-23-16-l
l-24-17-a

Starting from segment *a* coil 1-6 is wound on, the end being connected to segment *b*. Coils 2-7, 3-8, 4-9, 5-10, are then wound on in the order given. In winding the next coil we find that space 6 is already occupied so that this coil will have to occupy the outer layer or 18, being brought back to the front of the armature along space 11. The remaining coils will now each occupy one space in the outer layer and one space in the inner layer until we arrive at coil 20-13 where the entire coil is now placed in the outer layer. It will be seen that the paths through the armature from brush to brush are somewhat equalized as compared with the first method given.

It will be observed that in the diagram Figure 62 the commutator is so placed that each segment lies between the coils to which it is connected and a symmetrical arrangement of the end connections is obtained. This is of great importance where heavy conductors are used. The armature shown in Figure 58 could be so arranged by shifting the commutator to the right.

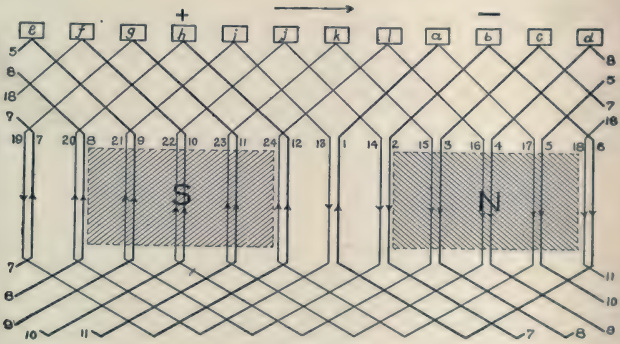


Figure 63.

The development, Figure 63, shows the brush positions and the direction of the current in each conductor.

With the armature in the position shown the two paths from the negative to the positive brush are:

$$-\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{b-6-1-a-17-24-l-16-23-k-15-22-j-14-21-i-13-20-h}\\ \text{b-2-7-c-3-8-d-4-9-e-5-10-f-18-11-g-19-12-h}\end{array}\right\}+$$

The current in conductor 13 (in the upper row of figures) and 7 (in the lower row) is in opposition to that in the other conductors lying in the same space with them. The demagnetizing effect of the armature currents is thereby decreased.

As the armature moves to the right the positive brush will short circuit coil 12-19 and the negative brush coil 1-6. As will be seen by examining the figure these coils are in the active part of the field.

In the previous examples of drum winding we have considered only the methods of winding with bi-polar fields. As has been explained elsewhere there are many conditions where the use of a bi-polar field is not advisable and numerous advantages are gained by using a multi-polar field, or a field consisting of more than one pair of poles.

The same general principles apply to multi-polar windings as apply to bi-polar windings and while there are numerous schemes of winding, the application of only those methods in common use will be described.

Figure 64 shows an armature winding with its development, Figure 65, consisting of 18 conductors and a four-pole field. Following out the circuit from one

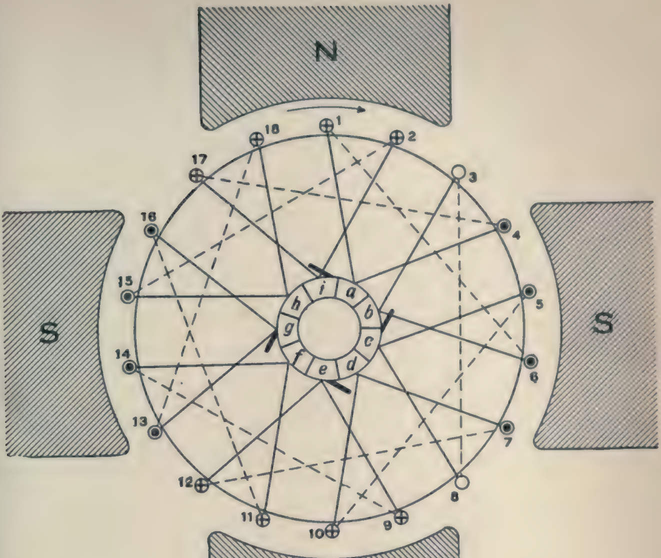


Figure 64.

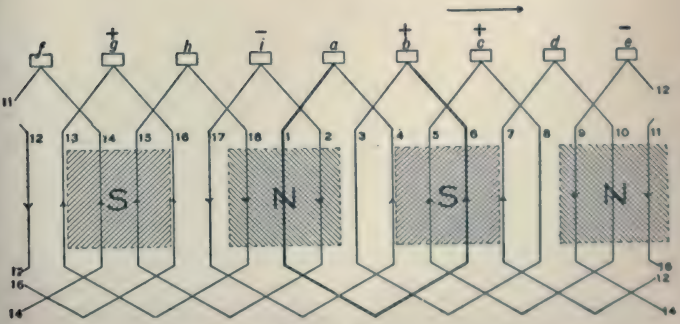


Figure 65.

commutator segment to the next on the developed winding it will be seen that, after making a turn of the armature, the winding laps back to the commutator segment next to the one from which it started and it is therefore called a "lap" winding. Tracing out the winding from commutator segment *a* we find it follows the path a-1-6-b, b-3-8-c, c-5-10-d, etc., until it arrives at the coil i-17-4-a where it returns to the starting point. A complete revolution of the armature has been made and every conductor has been passed through, and each one only once, forming what is termed a single reentrant winding.

Observing the end connections of coil a-1-6-b, for instance, it will be seen that the value of y for the rear connection is 5; each conductor at the rear of the armature being connected to a conductor 5 spaces beyond. The value of y for the front connection is —3; each conductor being connected to a conductor 3 spaces, or conductors, back from it. The average spacing is therefore 4 and the difference between the front and rear spacing is 2.

In connecting up the armature for a bi-polar field, in order that the induced currents would flow in the same direction in all the conductors connected in series we found it necessary to connect together at the rear of the armature the conductors lying under a north pole with those lying almost directly opposite it under a south pole. So, in the case of a four-pole field, each conductor at the rear of the armature is connected in series with a conductor which lies in a field of opposite sign which, in this case, is not across a diameter but one-fourth the distance around the armature. The value of y, the pitch, should therefore be nearly equal to the total number of conductors divided by the number of poles, or $\frac{z}{n}$, where z=the number of conductors and n= the number of poles. As explained under the section on bi-polar armatures this spacing may be either greater or less than the value just given. If the spacing is greater than $\frac{z}{n}$ the cross connections will be longer with a resulting increase in the armature resistance. With the spacing less than $\frac{z}{n}$ the cross connections will be correspondingly shortened and the armature resistance lessened but the current will flow in opposite directions in the conductors which lie between the pole pieces, in the same manner as described for the short cord winding as used with a bi-polar field (Figure 56), and the demagnetizing effect of the armature will be reduced.

In Figure 64 it will be noticed that there are an even number of conductors, and that the pitch at the rear is 5 and at the front —3. In all lap windings with multi-polar fields there must be an even number of conductors and the pitch at the front and rear must be odd and must differ by 2.

A simple plan by means of which the student may investigate these several conditions consists in drawing roughly a circle, subdividing it with as many intersections as there are conductors on the armature and then drawing a series of connecting lines through the various points. These lines will then represent the armature conductors and their connections, the lines on the outside of the circle representing the rear connections and the lines on the inside of the circle the front connections.

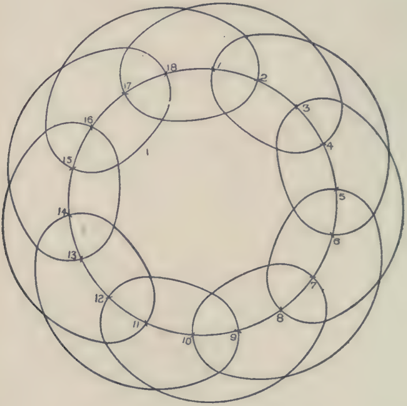


Figure 66.

Figure 66 shows this scheme drawn out for the armature shown in Figure 64. That the armature must have an even number of conductors can be seen by figures similar to that shown in Figure 67. Here 17 conductors are shown with a rear spacing of 5 and a front spacing of —3. The line from 13 should connect to a conductor 5 spaces beyond, or conductor 1, but this conductor is already connected to conductor 6.

With a bi-polar field and a one-layer winding it will be remembered that adjacent commutator segments were connected to every other conductor, the even-numbered conductors being taken as returns for the odd-numbered conductors. Similarly in a multi-polar armature our spacing must be such that only every other conductor is connected to a commutator segment. The front and rear spacings must therefore differ by 2.

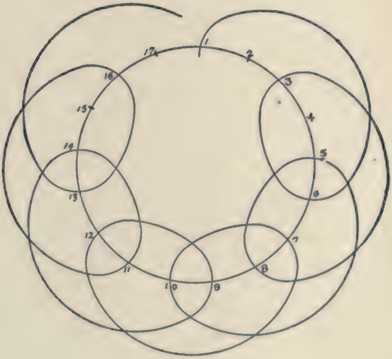


Figure 67.

That the front and back spacings must be odd can be easily determined with the scheme previously described. Figure 68 shows an armature with 18 conductors and a spacing at the rear of 6 and at the front 4. We see here that the loops close on themselves and would form a short-circuited winding.

With a lap-wound armature there are as many paths through the armature, and as many brushes, as there are poles. This can be seen from the development (Figure 65), the paths through the armature being as follows:

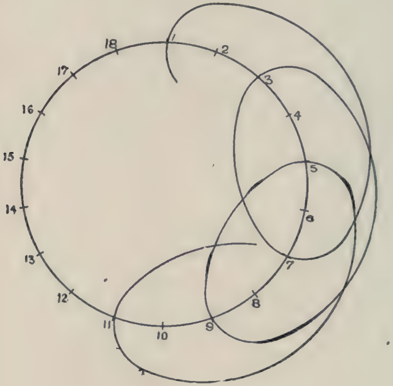


Figure 68.

—i- 2-15-h-18-13-g +
—i-17-4-a- 1- 6-b +
—e-12- 7-d-10- 5-c +
—e- 9-14-f-11-16-g +

These paths are unequal in length, as will be noticed from the drawing when the brush which bears on the commutator segments *b* and *c* has moved from this position. In order that all paths be of equal length the number of coils must be a multiple of the number of pairs of poles. For example, 16 conductors (8 coils) with a four-pole field (2 pairs of poles) would give uniform paths, each containing an equal number of coils. The objection to this arrangement lies in the fact that four coils would be short-circuited at the same time. An examination of Figure 65, where the number of coils is not a multiple of the number of pairs of poles, will show that four coils are not short-circuited at the same time. Where the number of coils is comparatively large the objection to the unequal length of coils is not of so great importance.

Where slotted armatures are used the same conditions as just stated apply. It is quite evident that instead of having the conductors placed around the outside of the armature these conductors could be arranged in suitable slots. For instance, in Figure 64, each pair of conductors, such as 1 and 2, 3 and 4, etc., could be placed in separate slots, in which case the same diagram would apply. As there must be an even number of conductors it is plain that there can be an even or odd number of slots, but the number of conductors per slot must be such that the total number of slots times the number of conductors per slot must be an even number.

In Figure 69 is shown an armature similar to the armature previously shown in Figure 64. There are exactly the same number of conductors and commutator segments. The conductors are placed on in the same positions and the connections on the back of the armature are identical with those of the previous figure.

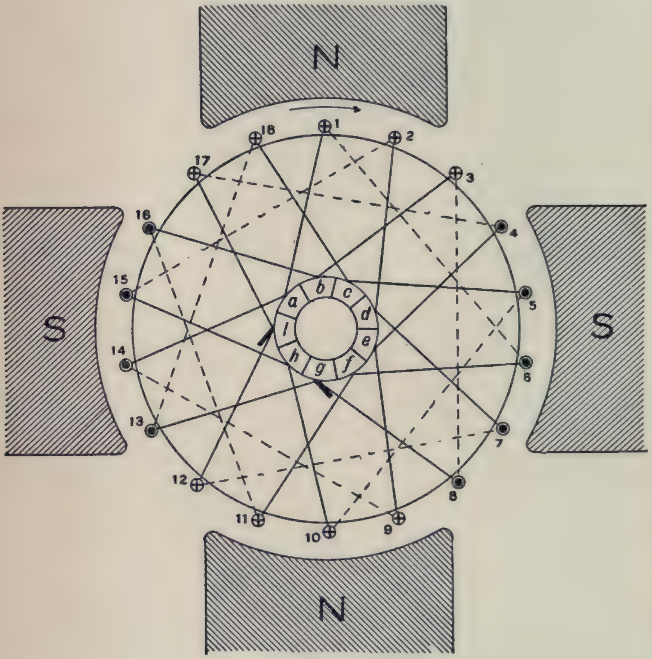


Figure 69.

The distinguishing feature of this armature winding lies in the method of connecting the various coils to each other and to the commutator segments at the front of the armature. Where, in the previously described winding, each coil after making a turn of the armature was carried back to a commutator segment adjacent to the one from which it started, in the present case the end of each armature coil is connected by means of a commutator segment to a coil some distance in advance of it.

The developed winding (Figure 70) clearly shows the manner in which this connection is made. It will be seen that the conductors are so connected that the current induced in each is in the same direction as that in the remaining conductors of the series. It will also be noticed that the developed winding of each element forms a sort of wave and this winding is therefore called a "wave" winding.

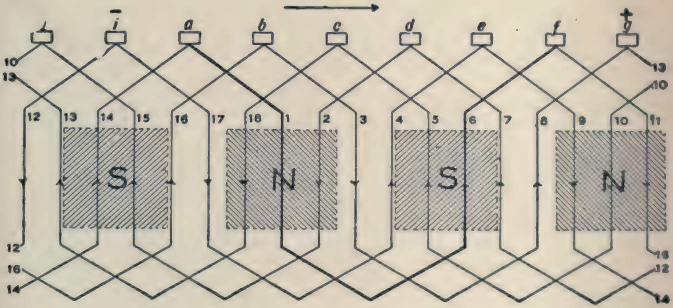


Figure 70.

The scheme previously described may be employed to get a better understanding of this winding. This consists in drawing a circle and dividing it with as many intersections as there are conductors on the armature and then drawing a series of connecting lines through the various points as shown by the winding table. The lines on the outside of the circle are to be considered as representing the rear connections of the armature, and the lines inside the circle the front connections, or those connections running to the commutator segments.

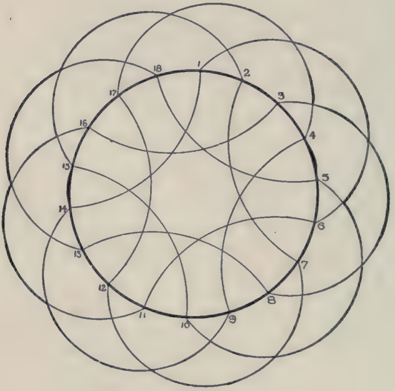


Figure 71.

Figure 71 shows the drawings for the case just described. Tracing out the winding it will be seen that starting from any point and following out the winding circuit every conductor is passed over once and the winding finally returns on itself.

The spacing, or pitch, for the rear is 5, being the same as that used with the lap winding. The spacing at the front of the armature differs from that of the lap winding in that it is not carried back but advances 5 spaces forward. The formula previously used for determining the number of conductors and the spacing may be applied in the present case. $y=\frac{2}{n}\left(\frac{z}{b}\pm 1\right)$. In Figure 69, $n=4$, $z=18$, $b=2$; $y=\frac{2}{4}\left(\frac{18}{2}\pm 1\right)=4$ or 5. For four-pole machines this formula simplified is, $z=4y\pm 2$. In Figure 69, $z=4\times 5-2=18$.

While the front and rear spacings in the drawing shown are alike (5 and 5), it is also possible to have these spacings differ. It is evident that the average spacing must be approximately equal to the total number of conductors divided by the number of poles, as the winding in passing around the armature from one commutator segment to the one next to it comes under each pole piece. In the example shown in Figure 69, this is equal to 4½; the average spacing may therefore be taken as 4, in which case the front spacing could be 5 and the rear spacing 3, or vice versa.

The pitches at the front and rear of the armature must be odd for, as has already been explained, the even-numbered conductors are taken as returns for the odd-numbered conductors.

The winding table for this armature is:

a- 1- 6-f
b- 3- 8-g
c- 5-10-h
d- 7-12-i
e- 9-14-a
f-11-16-b
g-13-18-c
h-15- 2-d
i-17-14-e

Where, in the lap winding there were as many brushes, and as many circuits through the armature, as there were pole pieces, in the winding now under consideration there are only two brushes and therefore only two paths through the armature. The two paths from the negative to the positive brush are:

$$- \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{i-17-4-e-9-14-a-1-6-f-11-16-b-3-8-g} \\ \text{i-12-7-d-2-15-h-10-5-c-18-13-g} \end{array} \right\} +$$

It will be seen that one path contains one more coil than the other and, with narrow brushes, only one coil is short-circuited at a time.

CHAPTER IV.

RING ARMATURES.

The ring armature is the oldest and the first to come into practical use. It is especially well suited for high voltage work, where the current used is not of a great quantity. For heavy and variable currents, such as are used in connection with ordinary incandescent lighting it is, however, seldom used. This is principally due to the fact that the resistance of a ring wound armature is about twice as high as that of a drum armature of the same capacity. Full diagrams and views of these armatures are given in chapter on Armature Windings-Diagrams so that we need not take up this branch here but instead can devote ourselves entirely to the practical side of the work.

Let us now consider the application of the wire to the armature. First of all it is necessary to insulate the inside of the slot, where the wire is to rest, with suitable insulating material. As space is an important item it is necessary that the insulation used should be as thin as possible without at the same time sacrificing the necessary strength. It must also be durable, and above all have sufficient heat-resisting qualities, especially if the wire to be used is small in comparison to the currents that are to be carried by it. Suitable insulating materials for this purpose are:

Shellacked paper or cloth.
Shellacked card board.
Thin fiber.
Mica.

Having thus carefully insulated the slot and the ends of the armature where the wire comes to rest upon it we may begin to apply the wire. Figure 72 is drawn to illustrate two methods of doing this. In the first method, shown at *a,* the winding is begun in one corner of the slot and continued in regular order, progressing first from left to right until one layer is finished and then from right to left until the second layer is complete. By this method we can see, by referring to the figure that the last turn of the second layer finally comes in very close contact to the first turn of the first layer. The same condition will exist with every other succession of layers. The result of this is a great liability to abrasion in the first place; further a great liability of the insulation being pierced, should the coil be wound with a great number of turns of wire so that a great difference of potential should come to exist within it. We must in this connection bear in mind that the insulation of armature wires is usually very thin, since space is an important item.

By the above method of winding another great disadvantage is introduced. The lowest coil of wire being so tightly hemmed in, and at the same time there being considerable necessity for handling the wire, the end of which is projecting, there is much risk of breaking it off short. If this actually occurs it becomes necessary to unwind the whole coil in order to get at this wire for repairs.

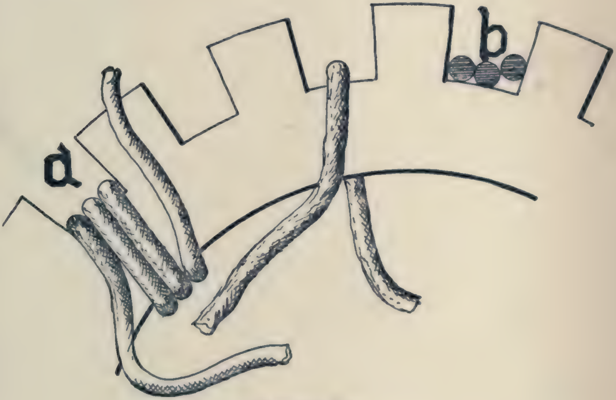


Figure 72.

In order to avoid these elements of trouble the method now to be described is extensively employed: Take of the wire that is to be wound upon the armature sufficient to make one coil; the amount required had best be determined by experiment by first winding a coil temporarily and then unwinding it and marking the middle of it. Take the wire thus marked and place the middle of it exactly in the center of the slot as shown in Figure 72. Now begin winding from the center to one side until that side is filled, next begin winding the other side in the same way and continue winding the second layer in the same way, half from each side, until the slot is filled. By this method if the number of layers is even the two ends of the coil will finish in the center side by side. If there is an uneven number of layers the two ends of the coil will finish at opposite sides. It will make no particular difference which is the case. If the wires come side by side at the finish the full difference of potential will exist between them; if they finish at opposite sides the difference of potential between them will be somewhat less. In either case it will be advisable to provide some insulation between the two halves of the coil.

As we have already seen that the two halves of the armature are in parallel; that is, that the currents from the two halves meet at the positive brush, from there flow out to the line and separate again at the negative brush. If now there are fewer turns of wire on one side of the armature than on the other, or if there is a weak coil, one side will always be generating a greater E. M. F. than the other and consequently current from the high pressure side will always be flowing through the other. To understand this more thoroughly take a glance at Figure 40. In the armature there shown there are 16 coils. If this armature is to generate 40 volts each coil will be called upon to generate an average E. M. F. of 5 volts. Now suppose one of the coils to be cut out of the circuit entirely. It is clear that at all times, except when the dead coil is at the neutral point there are 8 coils generating against 7, i. e. 40 volts against 35. In order to find the current that would flow in such an armature while on open circuit, we subtract the low voltage from the high, which leaves us an active voltage of 5. If the resistance of the armature were .1 ohm we should have a current of 50 amperes circulating in the armature a great part of the time. This would not be a constant current because the position of the dead coil would be constantly changing. While it would occupy a position at or near the neutral point there would be no current and each time after the coil had passed the neutral point the current would be reversed in direction. The current would therefore be changing both in strength and direction. If the dynamo were generating current this condition would not be so marked, but it would nevertheless greatly reduce the capacity of the machine. As the pressure would be variable there would also be a variable current.

Differences in the generation of E. M. F. are sometimes also caused by the wires of different coils being at a greater distance from the center of the armature. Other things being equal the E. M. F. of a coil varies with its distance from the center around which it revolves. It can readily be seen that the farther a wire is removed from the center of the armature, the greater becomes the area which it encloses and the number of lines of force cut by that wire in each revolution. For this reason it is well to select only such methods of winding in which the coils are so arranged that all of them are at the same average distance from the center of the armature shaft. Another cause for differences in the generation is found in inequalities of resistance in different coils. This, however, has no effect upon the armature while it is not delivering current. We have already seen that the loss in potential in any circuit is proportional to the resistance of that circuit and the current flowing in it. To find the exact value of this loss we multiply the two together. If of several coils carrying the same current one has a higher resistance the loss in potential in this coil will be correspondingly greater than in the others. That side of the armature on which such a coil happens to be will therefore have a lower pressure than the other and there will be the same tendency to a vacillating current as in the case of a coil of uneven number of turns. These variations will, however, not be near so great, for an excessive current flowing from the high side will reduce the pressure on that side and the checking of the current on the low side will raise the pressure there so that a balance will be obtained without any great current flow. The main danger of introducing inequalities of resistance in the winding lies in the inner winding with Gramme ring armatures. The space for the winding at this place is necessarily of a different shape than that on the outside and there are also the spokes to contend with.

When the last layer is placed on the armature great care is advisable to see that it finishes off smooth. This adds greatly to the appearance and also avoids churning the air which would be the cause of drawing dust, etc., into the armature.

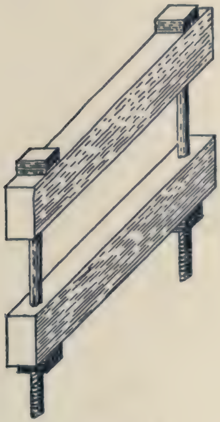


Figure 73.

Care should be exercised to avoid the condition of wires shown at *b* Figure 72. The wire at the right is very likely to work down in time and thus leave loose wire above it that may work down and cause trouble. This would not be near so bad if the space into which it could work were not quite so large so that the wire in question could rest more on the one below it.

If an armature not provided with slots is to be wound it is customary to provide a few clamps, such as are shown in Figure 73, which will hold the wire in place while a coil is being wound. In such a case the space for each coil must be carefully laid off and the clamps placed so that in the end no coil can have more turns than any other.

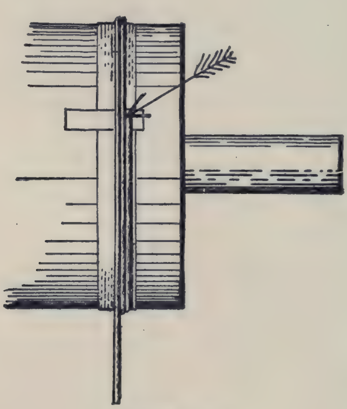


Figure 74.

Before starting the winding, tape should be placed on the armature and left long enough so that it can be used to tie the coils together when the clamps are removed.

In all cases the workman cannot be too careful about locating each wire. Each wire should go to its proper place and by no means cross any other wire below it so as to form a bulge. The strain on the wires of an armature, whether dynamo or motor, is at times very severe, and if there is any flaw it will surely manifest itself.

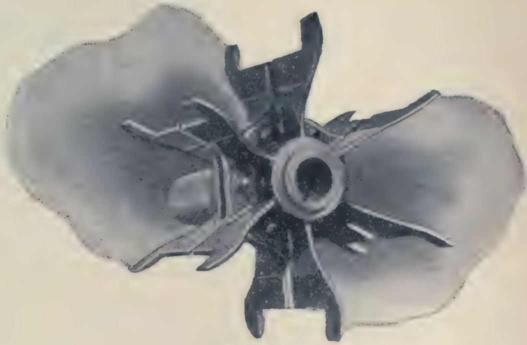


Figure 75.

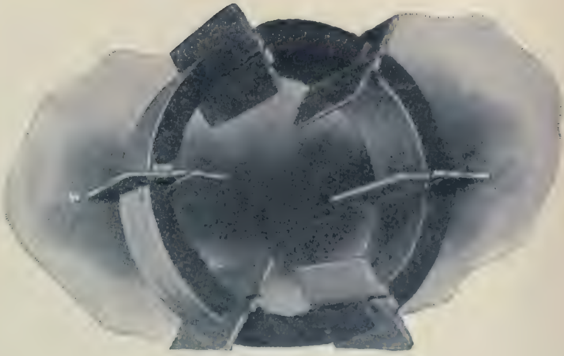


Figure 76.

In the case of a fine winding each layer as it is put in place should be thoroughly soaked with shellac. No current, except of a very low potential from a small battery, should be used either for testing or for any other purpose until this shellac is dry. Shellac until dried is a conductor and may be pierced by the current and thus leave a gap through which at a later time current may leak. An armature of this kind is usually baked at a high temperature for about 24 hours.

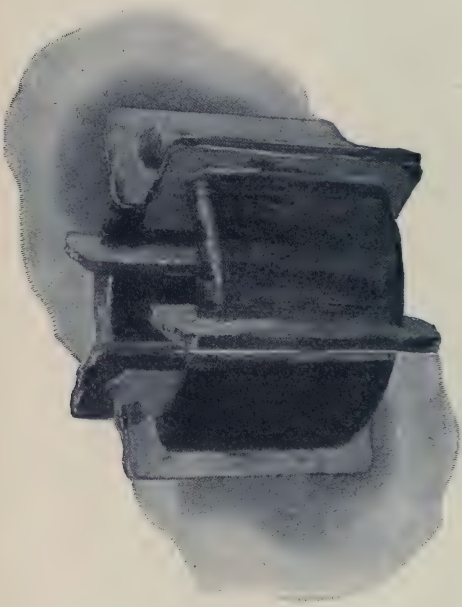


Figure 77.

As an illustration of the great care that is advisable in the insulation of the wires on the armature we may state that some manufacturers place the magnet windings into tanks from which the air can be exhausted.

After the air is withdrawn from the coils the insulating compound is allowed to flow into the tank until the coil is submerged. This allows the insulating compound to enter into the most minute openings that may exist between the wires. Air pressure is afterward applied to make certain that the interior of the coil is reached by the fluid.

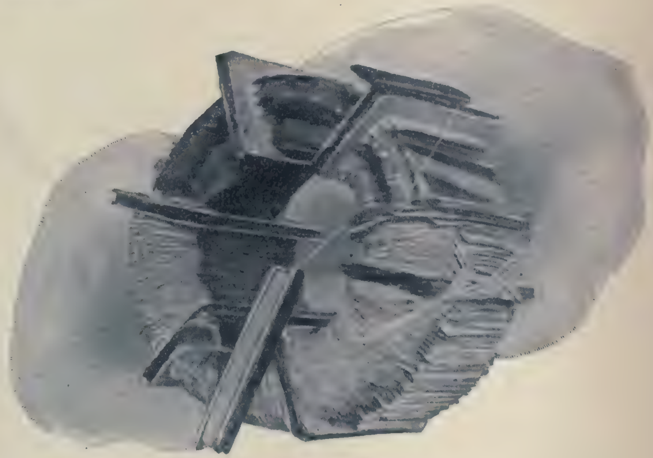


Figure 78

As each coil is finished it may be tested for correctness of winding by a battery of three or four cells and a small galvanometer. The battery, if always applied in the same way, must produce the same deflections on the galvanometer. See Figure 101. If it does not do this the coil in question has been wound wrong. It is not always necessary to unwind the coil to correct this, as frequently all that will be found necessary is to connect the terminals of the coil in the opposite way from the rest. As this, however, often necessitates the crossing of the wires it is sometimes objectionable.

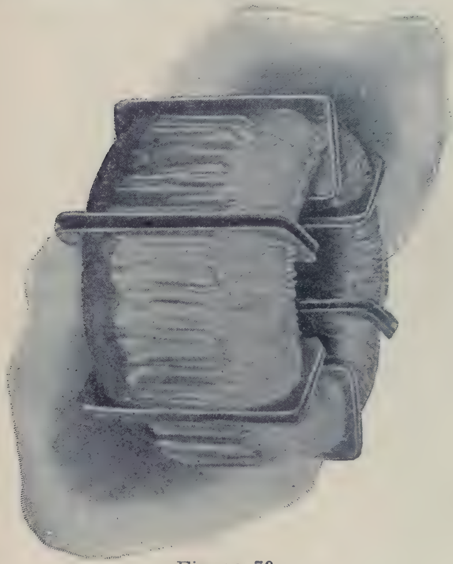


Figure 79.

When all of the coils have been wound upon the armature the end of each coil is to be fastened to the beginning of the next. Both are then fastened to their respective commutator bars. It is well to tape the two wires together; this leaves them stronger to resist mechanical interference and they will then occupy less space. This latter is an important consideration where there are many coils.

The commutator segments are sometimes provided with screws to hold the wire, but oftener the wires are soldered directly to the segments. This latter is the safest method but may cause some trouble should it be desired to remove the commutator for repairs.

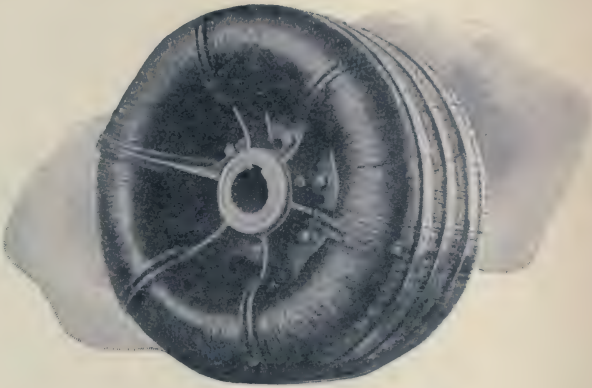


Figure 80.

The next step is the placing of the binding wires. These are to hold the wires of the armature in place and must always be used unless the slots on the armature are of the enclosed, or nearly enclosed, type. The binding wires are wound upon the finished armature as shown in Figure 74. After placing a band of insulating material, such as mica, where the wires are to go, begin by taking one or two turns of wire around the armature with the spool. Draw these as tight as possible and solder as indicated by the arrow in the figure. Now proceed by putting the balance of the turns in place by revolving the armature and holding the wire stationary. In this way the windings can be placed very accurately and close together. After a sufficient number of turns have been put in place they are all soldered together over the whole circumference to avoid the possibility of any of the wires breaking loose and causing damage.

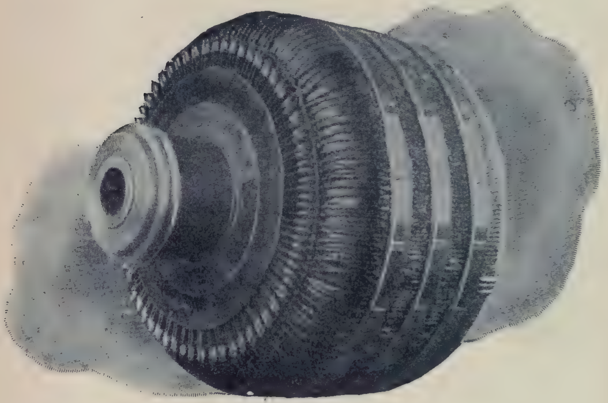


Figure 81.

Where the winding begins and ends a thin piece of brass should be laid under the wire before it is wound on. After the winding is finished this is bent over and soldered. Iron and steel should not be used for binding wires for, although the cross section may not be large, they would always increase the magnetic leakage and that would to some extent lessen the E. M. F. of the machine. The size of the binding wire used ranges from number 20 to number 10; the latter being used for the larger machines and the first for the smaller. Usually about one-third of the armature is covered by these wires.

As an illustration from actual practice in the winding of an armature we refer to Figures 75 to 81 which show the making up of a Wood arc machine armature. Figure 76 shows the laminations assembled with clamps mounted thereon. In Figure 77 the core is insulated and ready for the winding. Figure 78 shows the winding partly finished and it may be noted that the winding is done after the manner described with Figure 72, the wire for each coil being on two separate bobbins one of which is used to wind to the right and the other to the left from the center. Figures 79, 80 and 81 are views of the finished armature. Figure 75 is a view of the spider which, in this case, is not placed in the armature until the winding is completed.

CHAPTER V.

DRUM ARMATURES.

The student of drum armature winding will avoid much worry and mental tribulations if he will at the beginning of his work construct for himself out of a large spool or similar circular object a little imitation armature upon which he can wind with strings such coils as are herein described as being in use on armatures. These little experiments will be even more realistic and instructive if, for this purpose the armature of some real motor or generator, such for instance as a fan motor can be procured. Such an armature should preferably be of the slotted kind as this will facilitate the winding considerably. If a wooden spool such as above referred to is to be used its periphery must be divided off into the proper number of spaces by suitable nails.

A few windings attempted on such spools or armatures will make clear many points that can not easily be grasped in any other way.

One of the simplest forms of armature winding is that shown in Figure 82 and we shall take this for the purpose of demonstration. It will be noticed by reference to the figure that there are twelve slots in the armature and six commutator segments. These commutator segments are not actually shown but are sufficiently indicated by the ends of wires twisted together. Wherever two wires come together there will be, when the armature is finished, a commutator segment. The proportion of two slots to one commutator segment is not always necessary nor desirable as we shall see further along but it is a very convenient one.

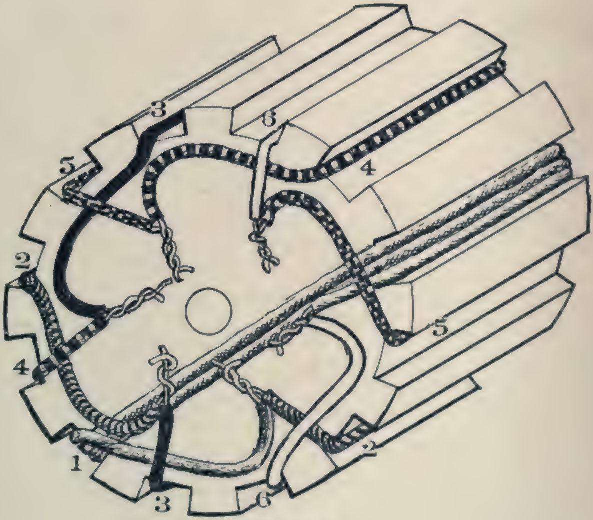


Figure 82.

We may now begin our winding by selecting any one of the slots and starting the wire into this one, continue from it to the one opposite as shown in the figure where the same numbers are used to designate the opposite parts of the same coils. Thus beginning at 1 we wind into this slot, across the back of the armature into the other slot marked 1 and taking as many turns as desired in this way finish this coil by leaving the end of the wire in position to connect to the beginning of the next coil when it is started into slot 2. If we continue to wind in this way we obtain a lefthand winding but as far as the operation of the armature is concerned it is quite immaterial whether we connect to the next coil to the right or the left so long as we continue the armature in the same manner until it is completed.

It will be noticed by tracing out the winding in the figure that each successive coil is started in the 2d slot from the one for which it forms a continuation, that is to say, if the first coil is wound into 1-1 the second must be wound into 2-2, the third into 3-3 etc. It can be readily seen that, as each coil fills out two slots we have in this case with the third coil finished half of the armature. If we were to wind the slots in consecutive order, the connections for our commutator would all come on one side and we could do nothing with our armature. As we now continue in the order we have started we finally complete the entire winding and have the beginning and end of a coil opposite each commutator section. We can now fasten the beginning of the first coil to the end of the last one and if all are connected in the same way this finishes the winding. As we have seen before it will be immaterial whether we progress with these connections to the right or the left so long as we continue throughout in whichever way we have started.

In actual practice only the smallest armatures are constructed with such a small number of coils. As each coil possesses considerable inductance which increases very rapidly with the size of the coil, i. e., number of turns, it is desirable to have as few turns per coil as possible. For a number of other reasons as well, which have been fully set forth under "Current Generation," it is desirable to limit the number of turns of wire per coil.

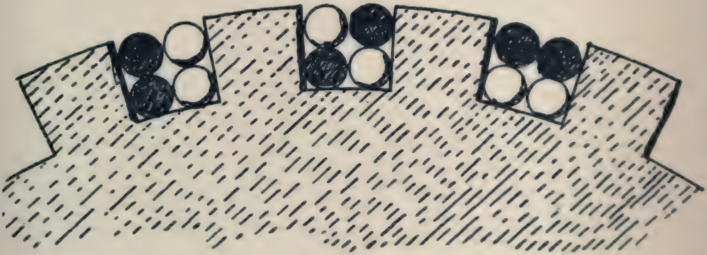


Figure 83.

Now as long as we wind but one coil per slot we shall have the coils needlessly large. It is impracticable to make slots so small that but one or two turns of wire would fill out one of them. The number of coils is limited by the number of commutator segments and unless we wind two or more coils into one slot we can have but half as many commutator sections or coils as there are slots. In order to get small coils it is therefore necessary to place two coils into each slot. This may be accomplished according to either of the plans shown in Figure 83. In this figure the black and white circles respectively represent the wires of two different coils wound into the same slot. As we have already seen under ring armatures that wires of different coils should if possible all be of the same length it follows that the method to the right showing one coil wound over the other should be avoided.

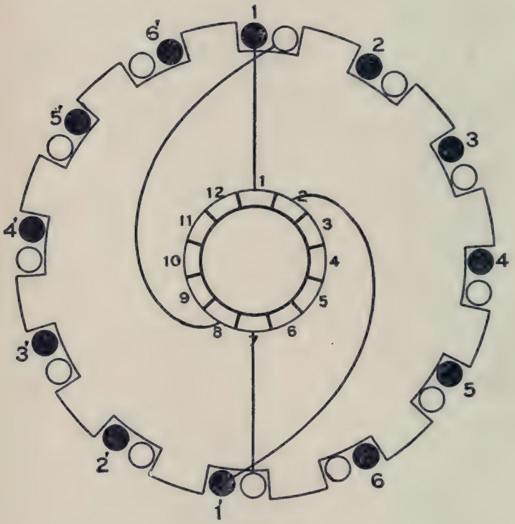


Figure 84.

In order to see how two coils are wound into one slot let us refer to Figure 84. This figure is a duplicate of

Figure 82 with the exception that now we have as many commutator segments as there are slots in the armature. The black circles represent the wire of one set of coils and the white those of the other.

The simplest method of winding two coils into one slot consists in first winding one coil complete as before described and then winding the other over it. As this, however, gives two coils of different resistances and also cutting a different number of line of force such a winding is seldom used. A better way is the following: Cut two wires of sufficient length so that each will make one coil, place the armature upon two cross bars of convenient height so that it can be easily turned over when required. Mark all of the slots with appropriate numbers according to the plan of wiring selected so there may be no confusion when the work is started. A very good plan is shown in Figure 85. This plan gives the smallest head of any because there are always two coils running parallel to each other across the ends of the armature. Thus we have three layers of wire crossing over each other where with any of the others we should have six. But in order to get the advantage of this smaller head, we cannot wind the coils in the order given in a previous explanation of this winding. It becomes necessary to wind completely, at the same time, the two coils that run parallel to each other across the ends. To do this requires more experience and forethought than the way previously described. The method is the following: Begin the winding with the coil marked 1, Figure 84, and make one complete turn and fasten the two ends of the wire together, temporarily, if more turns are to follow, or fasten each to its proper place on the commutator if there is to be but one turn. Now turn the armature half way round and wind the other wire in the same way. If there are to be more turns continue to wind the second turn; after this is finished turn the armature back to its original position and wind the first wire again. Repeat in this manner until the desired number of turns in both coils have been obtained. By reference to Figure 84, we note that the windings do not skip slots as before in Figure 82. This is easily explained when it is noticed

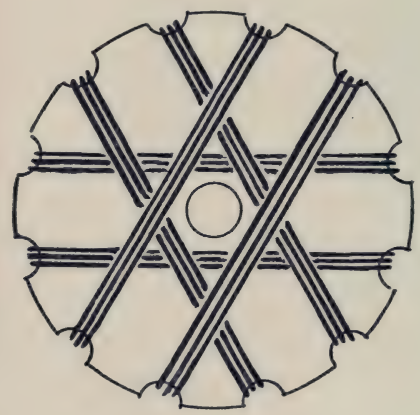


Figure 85.

that each slot contains two conductors and that at each step we skip one conductor or coil as before.

It is not necessary in actual practice to turn the armature around as above suggested. This was suggested merely as a beginning to make the principle more plain. The same result can readily be obtained if the armature is left stationary. The only point that it is necessary to observe is that the windings must come right to connect to the commutator as shown in the figure.

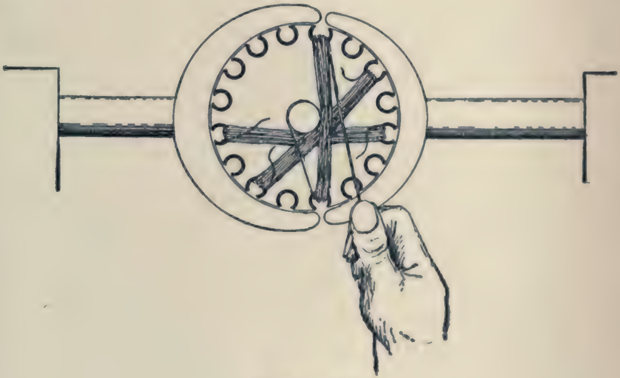


Figure 86.

It is well enough to observe care and see that all of the coils are wound in the same direction but it will make no material difference in the operation if one part of the coils are wound left hand and the other right. The essential point is to see that they are connected so that the magnetism resulting from current flow through the coil will be the same in all. If this is different in one coil than it is in the others it can easily be rectified by changing the end connections of the coil in question.

While hand winding is the only method possible with ring armatures many of the smaller drum armatures may be wound with the aid of machinery. As this machinery is very simple and can be rigged up almost anywhere we give in Figure 86 an illustration of one of the methods used. In this figure the armature is shown from one end. It is fastened between two metal clamps which hold it rigidly and which are mounted in bearings so that they can be revolved when desired. This arrangement admits of winding such an armature much in the same way as a spool of wire would be wound. There are extending flanges on the two clamps for the purpose of protecting the wire from being entangled in the shaft which projects from both ends of the armature. When one coil is wound the armature must be turned a little to admit of winding the next coil.

The majority of the larger dynamos and motors are now made multipolar and in connection with these a method of winding entirely different from that heretofore treated is generally used. While it is perfectly possible to use an armature wound for a bi-polar machine in connection with a multi-polar one it is not customary nor advisable to do so. The coil of a multi-polar dynamo, as a rule, does not encircle the whole armature but instead covers only a part of the periphery. In general such coils have their return wire spaced about as far ahead or behind the first turn as it is from the center of one pole piece to the center of the next one. This it can readily be seen gives us a winding of much lower resistance since we have not the amount of dead wire at the ends. Furthermore it makes the magnetic circuit much better and lessens the reaction. And lastly it makes possible the use of much larger diameters of armature than would be practicable with the old style of winding.

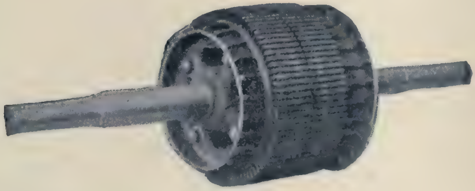


Figure 87.

Another great advantage of this style of armature is, that it becomes possible to use the so-called "former coils" in connection with them.

A former coil, as the name implies, is one that is wound complete upon a former, independent of the armature, and placed upon it afterward. Figures 87, 88 and 89 show a general view of a former coil and the method of placing it on the armature, Figure 87 showing the armature core without winding, Figure 88 the formed coil and Figure 89 the completed armature. Figures 90, 91 and 92 illustrate the manner in which formed coils are made up.

In Figure 90 the black circles represent strong pins fastened into a piece of plank or other suitable material. The wire is wound around these pins as indicated in the figure; as many turns being taken as we have decided to allow for each coil. When the coil is thus completely wound, it is taken from the pins, and the lower ends placed in a suitable clamp as indicated by the broken line and in the center of the figure. After this clamp is fastened onto the coil, the two halves of the coil are spread apart, one being pulled toward the operator and the other being pushed away from him at

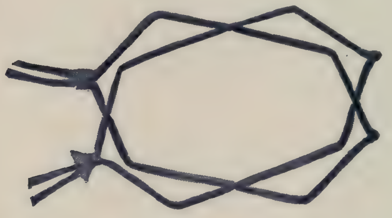


Figure 88.

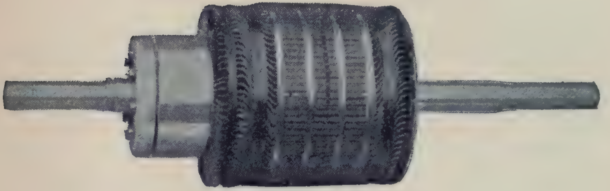


Figure 89.

right angles to the clamp. In this way the coil is made to assume the shape illustrated in Figure 94. Before winding a coil in this manner it is of course necessary to know just what length and breadth it must be and a pattern coil must therefore first of all be prepared from which the spacing of the pins can be taken so that the completed coil will fit into the slots for which it is intended.

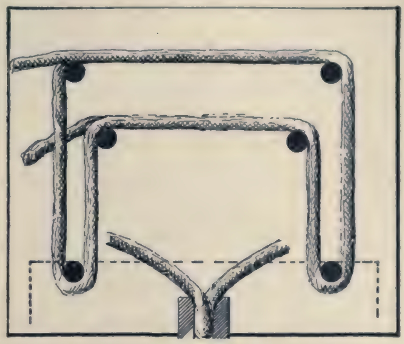


Figure 90.

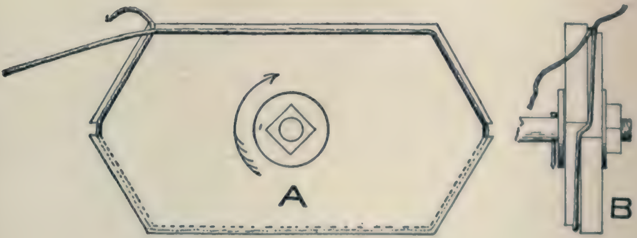


Figure 91.

The arrangement shown in Figure 91 is made up of two boards loosely laid together and the coil is formed upon it by revolving the frame and letting the wire wind upon it. When a coil is finished the front half of the frame is removed and the coil taken off. At A, a front view of the frame is given and at B an end view. It is necessary to make up a frame of this kind for every style of coil but when this is once made coils can be very quickly wound upon it.

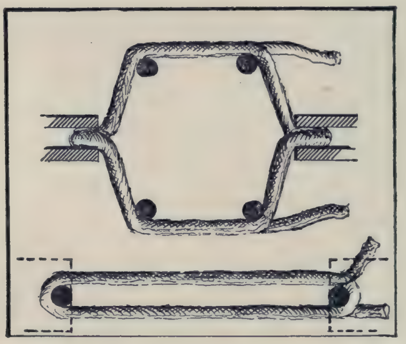


Figure 92.

Another method of forming coils is illustrated in Figure 92. In this case the coil is first wound around two pins as shown in the upper part of the figure. The ends are then placed in two clamps as indicated by the dotted lines at the top and shaded lines in the center of the figure. After these clamps are fastened, the coil is turned one-fourth around, and the wires spread out over the four pins as indicated in the figure.

It will be noticed that the manner of forming results in coils of two different shapes. One of these, Figure 92, is known as a "barrel" winding and an armature wound with such coils has the general appearance depicted in Figure 93. The other is known as the "evolute" winding and when placed upon an armature shows as in Figure 94.

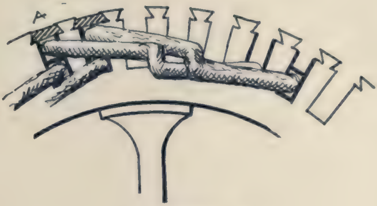


Figure 93.

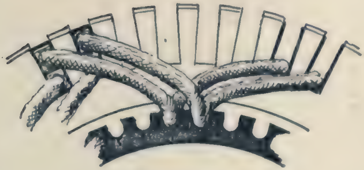


Figure 94.

When all of the coils are once wound the placing of them upon the armature is a very simple matter. After the slot has been insulated in the usual manner we begin at any slot that is convenient and lay in the coils as shown in Figures 93 and 94, continuing until all of the slots are filled. Before we can fill all of the slots it will be seen that it becomes necessary to raise up some of the first ones and insert the last ones below them. In this way the whole armature is completely and regularly filled out.

There is no difference of importance between the evolute and the barrel winding and there is no reason whatever why one style cannot be used on one side of the armature and the other on the opposite side.

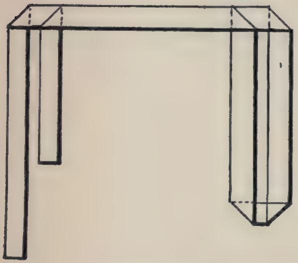


Figure 95.

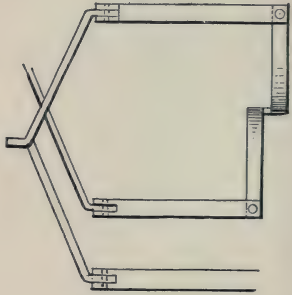


Figure 96.

For very large machines the coils often consist of single bars of copper made of special dimensions to suit the requirements. These are often arranged as shown in Figures 95 and 96. Such bars are sometimes uninsulated and laid into the slots with insulation loose on the sides and bottom and between the different bars of a slot. Such bars are often held in place by pieces of wood slipped into the slots as indicated at Figure 93. Where no provision for the insertion of such strips of wood has been made the bars are held in place by the regular binding wires.

Where the formed coil consists of several turns of wire it is usual after removing from the form to cover the coil over its entire length with cotton tape. As the placing on of the tape by hand would be a slow procedure machines are generally used for this purpose. These machines are so constructed that a roll of tape placed on a split metal ring is revolved around that wire to be taped, the wire being gradually moved until it is entirely covered.

CHAPTER VI.

COMMUTATOR CONSTRUCTION.

The general principle of commutator construction is illustrated in Figure 97. The commutator consists partly of an iron core mounted upon a shaft and fastened thereto by keys, set screws, or by shrinking on, or fastened directly to the armature core. It is preferable to have it so arranged that it can be readily removed for repairs or turning down. The latter operation, if the machine operates at a high rate of speed becomes necessary quite frequently, especially if the brushes are not well kept in order. Very often, however, the turning

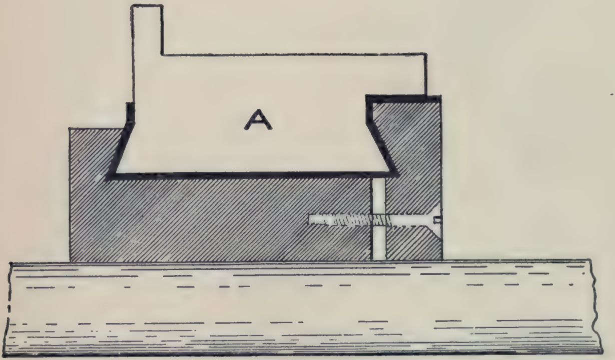


Figure 97.

down is done without removing the commutator or the armature by making arrangements so that the turning tool can be adjusted to the machine.

The manner of fastening the copper bars to the iron core can be seen in Figure 97, the heavy black lines representing the insulation and the wedge shape of the copper and corresponding form of the iron being especially suitable to hold both together when the screws are drawn up. A portion of the front view of the same commutator is given in Figure 98. It is of the utmost importance especially with high speed machines that the commutator be perfectly true and smooth. If this is not the case the brushes are apt to leave the surface for an instant after passing over the high places. This will result in some sparking which will soon eat away parts of the copper.

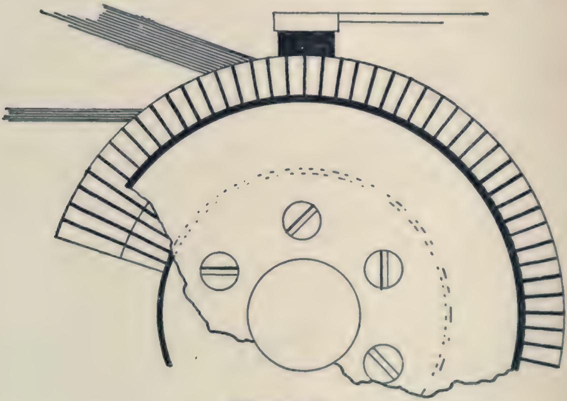


Figure 98.

As the insulation must be provided between each of the bars and as these are usually of a great number it is very important that the insulating medium should be hard enough so as not to be very much compressed by the pressure applied to bring the bars into place. It should also be fire proof and not subject to much expansion or contraction as otherwise the parts are likely to become loose. These requirements are best answered

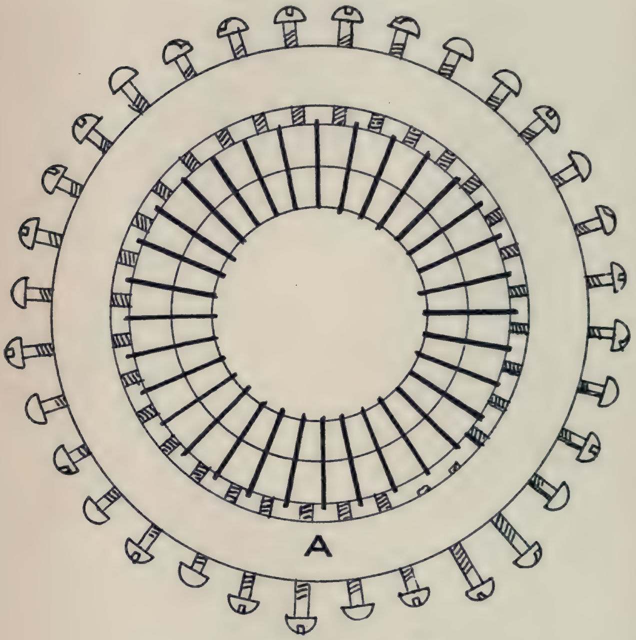


Figure 99.

by mica and this is used almost entirely. Various special kinds of copper are generally used for the bars.

In assembling the commutator bars a cylindrical piece of wood of the diameter of the inside of the commutator is mounted in an upright position on a wooden platform or table. The commutator segments and the insulating material between the segments are then placed around this wood pattern and held in place by an adjustable band or rope. When all the segments are in position a metal ring such as is shown in Figure 99 is placed over them. The screws are set up so as to make the whole as near circular as possible. The whole device is now placed in an oven and baked for some time after which it is removed and the screws again set up as tight as is practicable. It is now placed in a lathe and the inside and ends of the commutator turned down to the desired shape. The core is now inserted and fastened in place and the ring removed and the outside face finished off smooth and round. Various other devices similar to the one described are also used for this purpose.

The size of the commutator varies with the voltage and the ampere capacity of the machine. If there is not sufficient copper in the bars they will be overheated by the current; if there is not sufficient insulation between them the current is likely to jump across. Of course the higher the voltage per bar of the machine the greater the danger from this.

The brushes may be of copper or carbon. Carbon brushes are generally set as shown at the top of Figure 98. If arranged in this manner they need not be changed for a change in the direction of rotation of the armature. Copper brushes are set on as shown at the left of the figure. In case the machine is to be reversed the brushes must also be reversed. Either copper or carbon brushes may be arranged to cover several commutator bars. It is, however, not safe to cover several bars with a brush in all machines. Many machines would be ruined thereby.

The size, or contact surface of the brushes must be proportional to the current. As a general rule from 30 to 40 amperes per square inch are allowed with carbon brushes and about 150 with copper. As the resistance of carbon is so much higher it is often arranged to have a brush consist of part carbon and part copper, the combination being effected in various ways either by forming copper wires directly in with the carbon or attaching them to the surface of the carbon. It is customary to divide brushes into several sections all electrically connected to each other but mechanically independent. This brings about much smoother and better operation, since a rough spot on the commutator will now affect only one of the sections where otherwise it would throw the whole brush out of contact.

It is also advisable to stagger the brushes as shown in Figure 100 and to provide considerable lateral play for the shaft. This will secure an even wear of the greater part of the commutator surface. If the commutator is rough it can be smoothed with sandpaper; emery paper must not be used for this purpose as the fine particles are apt to lodge in the insulation and cause short circuits.

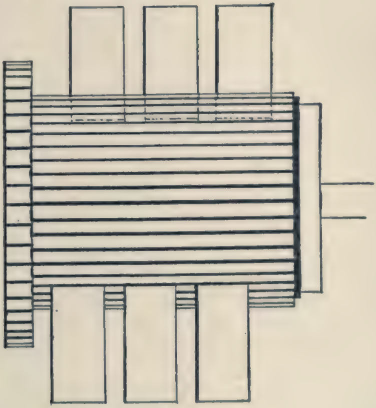


Figure 100.

If the carbon brushes do not fit well they are often trued by placing a piece of sandpaper rough side up on the commutator so that it can be drawn back and forth. This will cut the brush to the exact shape of the surface of the commutator under it.

CHAPTER VII.

ARMATURE TROUBLES.

Armature troubles may result from any one of the following causes:

There may be a wrong connection of one or more of the coils.

Some of the coils may be grounded.

There may be an open circuit.

There may be a short circuit.

The brushes may be improperly set.

There may not be sufficient area of contact between the brushes and the commutator.

The commutator may be rough and uneven.

The fields may be of uneven strength.

The test for a wrong connection of coils may be best explained by reference to Figures 101 and 102. These figures show part of the coils of a ring armature. If a battery or other source of E. M. F. be applied in Figure 101, as indicated by the signs, considerable current will flow through the coil which is directly connected to the two commutator segments to which the battery is connected. There will also be a current flow through the other coils of the armature, but this current, as it must pass through so many more coils, is of course much weaker. An inspection of the two figures will show clearly that if a coil is connected right as shown in Figure 101 there will be conflicting fields set up, as

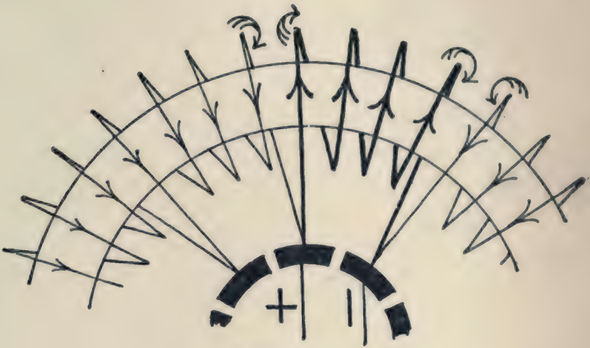


Figure 101.

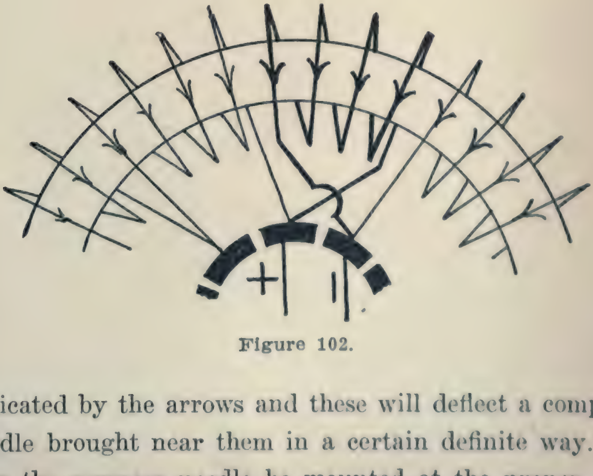


Figure 102.

indicated by the arrows and these will deflect a compass needle brought near them in a certain definite way. If now the compass needle be mounted at the proper distance from the armature and connections are made to all of the coils in rotation, these deflections must, if all of the coils are wound in the same way, be the same for each coil as it is brought in position before the needle. If one of the coils is connected wrong, as indicated in Figure 102, there will be no conflicting fields and the deflection of the compass needle will be of an entirely different nature.

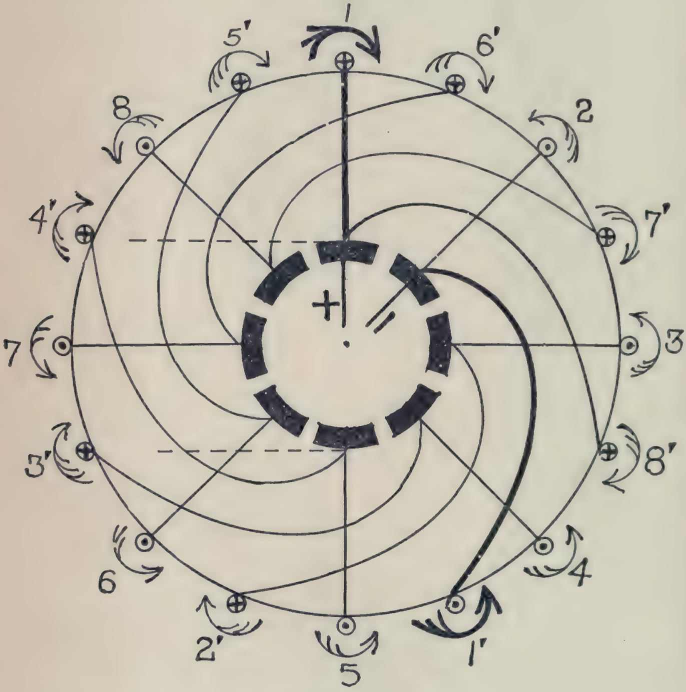


Figure 103.

The same principle can be applied to the testing of drum armatures for wrong connection of a coil. In Figure 103 the heavy black lines indicate the coil that is getting the greater part of the current, and the arrows drawn in connection with all of the wires indicate the direction of the lines of force produced, and consequently the conflicting fields set up by the current flowing in the coil.

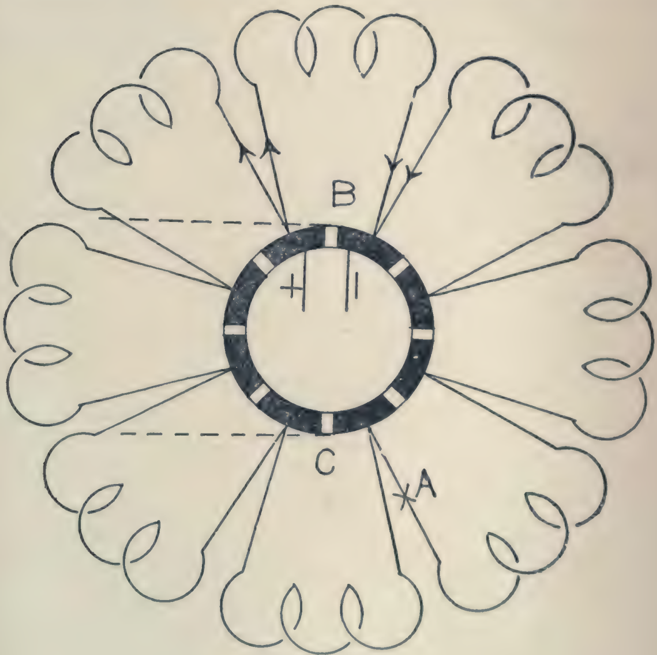


Figure 104.

Figure 104 will aid in making plain the wiring of an armature. This figure shows the wiring of either a ring or drum armature just as it would be if the wire were all taken off the core without detaching it from the commutator and spread out so as to admit of inspection of the wire used. It will be seen that the greater the number of commutator sections there are upon any armature the nearer must the total current used flow through the one coil that is directly in connection with the source of supply. If, for instance, there are 100 coils 99 per cent of the current will flow through the one coil.

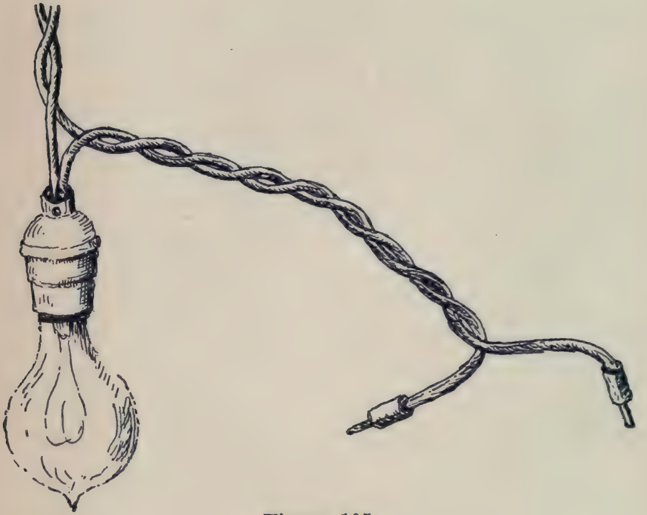


Figure 105.

The test for grounded coils is made by simply connecting one pole of a battery or electric light circuit to the iron of the armature and the other to any one of the commutator segments. If the connection is made as in Figure 105 the lamp will light if the insulation between the coils and the iron is broken down. The exact spot where the defect exists can be located only by a search, and it may be necessary to disconnect all of the coils from the commutator and test them one by one.

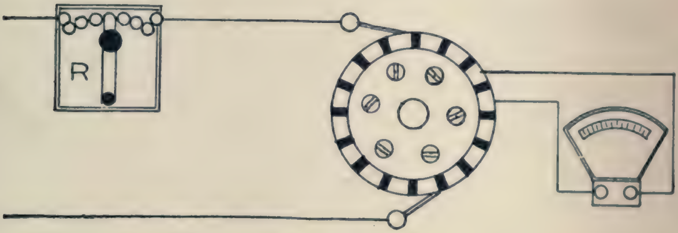


Figure 106.

An open circuit can be located by the method shown in Figure 106. A voltmeter is applied to adjacent sections of the commutator as indicated at the right of the figure. Current is next applied to the armature as shown by the two brushes at top and bottom. By means of the rheostat this current is regulated until a noticeable deflection upon the voltmeter is obtained. If the voltmeter connections are now made in rotation to all of the segment, about the same deflection will be obtained from all of them on that side of the armature which is sound. Upon the other side, however, no deflection will be obtained until the segments between which the broken coil is located is reached; at this point the voltmeter reading will be much higher. This can be made a little more clear by reference to Figure 104. Suppose the wire to be broken at A, and the battery connected as shown by the dotted lines: It is clear the current will flow in the coils at the left and this current will give only a small reading on the voltmeter because a coil of the armature which has a very low resistance is in shunt with it. When we come to the other side and find the broken coil however the only current that passes is that through the voltmeter, and therefore the reading on it will be about as high as that which is obtained by connecting at B and C.

If instead of an open circuit we have a short circuit we can proceed in the same way, but instead of an increased reading when we come to the defective coil we shall obtain no reading at all. A short circuit is very often due to two grounds, and it is advisable in all cases of trouble of this kind to first see that the armature is clear of grounds before testing for other faults.

Figure 107 shows a very handy device for the rapid testing of armatures. A single field magnet with its winding is mounted in an upright position. Two standards are arranged so that the armature, which is mounted on its shaft, can be easily revolved in a position close to the field magnet. An alternating current is passed through the magnet winding. In testing for short circuits the magnet is slowly revolved and a piece of iron or steel held close to the armature on the side away from the field magnet. If there is a short circuit in the armature winding, this winding will act as the secondary of a transformer and current will be induced in it which will magnetize the armature and cause the piece of metal to be drawn to it. If the armature is free from short circuits the piece of metal will not be vibrated.

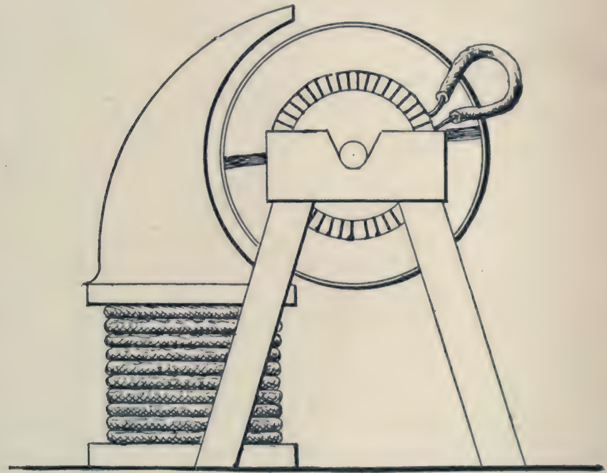


Figure 107.

To test for open circuits the armature is again revolved and each commutator segment is short circuited by a short piece of wire with the adjacent segment. Each time this short circuit is put on the small piece of iron held in the hand will vibrate. If the armature winding is open between any two segments this will be indicated by the failure of the iron to vibrate.

CHAPTER VIII.

ARMATURE CALCULATIONS.

The accurate design of a new type of dynamo is as much a matter of experiment as it is of calculation. There are so many factors involved that cannot be accurately determined until the machine of the exact proportions contemplated has been tried. These factors are, the permeability of the iron; the reluctance of the magnetic circuit; the tendency to leakage of the lines of force; the reaction of the armature; the proportion of the "dead wire"; losses due to foucault currents and to hysterisis.

It is not that the manner in which these losses may be increased or decreased is not well enough known, but simply that their exact values cannot be predetermined with any great degree of accuracy.

For this reason it is always necessary to allow for a considerable range of variation so that if we fall short or run over in any of the factors we can compensate by some other of these factors and finally obtain exactly what we seek.

In general practice all of this compensating is done through the agency of the field current strength, and for this purpose some means of regulating the current strength used in the fields is resorted to. In all self-exciting machines this is done by means of a resistance, variable at the will of the operator, which is placed in series with the field magnet winding. An increase in this resistance brings about a reduction in the current flow through the fields and a consequent lessening of the lines of force of which the field is made up which in turn causes a decrease in the voltage of the dynamo.

A variation in speed of course also brings with it a corresponding variation in the voltage generated and in many cases this is resorted to. This is a very convenient method when one has free hand in this respect, but very often no choice in this regard can be allowed. In any case this method can be used only in a general way and the current regulation mentioned above must be provided to make up for the continual variations due to change of load, etc., that occur daily. When a new machine is built it is, however, perfectly proper to arrange that it shall run at the speed at which it produces the required voltage unless of course it is to be attached to some shaft or engine which determines the speed at which it shall run.

The main precaution that is necessary to observe in arranging a dynamo so that the regulation of the voltage shall be accomplished by means of variation in the field current strength is to see that the field magnets are not worked at too high a degree of saturation. We have seen in previous chapter that the effect of the current in producing magnetism differs very much with different degrees of saturation and that with a high degree of saturation a great variation of current strength is necessary to increase the magnetism to an appreciable degree. It follows therefore, that in order to make the magnetism as sensitive as possible to current changes, we must use our iron at a low degree of saturation. By doing this we shall need to make but slight changes in the strength of the current to affect our machine in the way we desire.

If, however, we provide too much iron, we shall be adding considerable unnecessary expense so that in the last resort, unless we have already constructed very similar machines out of the same material and along the same lines we are driven to experiment.

In view of the above the following formulas are given merely as an aid in experimentation. They will serve very well to impress the student in the manner in which a variation of the different factors can be made to effect the final result. They will also come very useful when it is desired to learn how best a given machine may be changed in order to give certain results.

In connection with the following formulæ we shall adopt the attached set of symbols:

Let

F=the total number of lines of force or flux.

V=the number of volts to be generated.

S=the number of slots in the armature.

R. P. S.=the number of revolutions per second.

W=the number of wires per slot.

Then to find the number of wires necessary per slot where the speed and the flux are fixed we have:

$$W=\frac{10^8\times V}{F\times S\times R.P.S.}$$

To find the speed where the flux and the number of wires are fixed:

$$S=\frac{10^8\times V}{F\times W\times R.P.S.}$$

To find the necessary strength of field where the wires and speed are fixed:

$$F=\frac{10^8\times V}{W\times S\times R.P.S.}$$

To find the volts generated:

$$V=\frac{F\times W\times S\times R.P.S.}{10^8}$$

In actual practice whenever a new dynamo or motor is to be constructed it is, so to speak, built up around the armature. That is to say, it is usual to first design the armature and then the other parts can be made to fit around it. The principal factor to be taken into account is the size of the wire to be used. In order to deliver a certain current, the number of poles, etc., being fixed, we must use a certain size of wire. While we are not precisely bound to a certain size of wire, still economy demands that we keep very close to it. In most cases the heating of the wire is the governing consideration although in many cases it is the drop of potential at the terminals that governs. With reference to either of these considerations the smaller the wire the greater is the heating and the loss in potential. If we, therefore, wish to be economical in the construction of an armature we must know very nearly what to expect from a given current and a given wire. We can always keep on the safe side in either case by using larger wire than is absolutely necessary but as this not only adds to the cost for wire but necessarily increases the dimensions of the whole machine, or at the least the speed, it is essential that this point be carefully worked out.

Since, as we have already seen, there are quite a number of factors in armature construction that can be varied, to find the proportions best suited for any given case will very likely require a number of trial calculations.

As an example, let us now take an armature 8 inches in diameter and 8 inches in length and see what it will do for us. Such an armature has a cross section of 64 square inches and assuming a flux of 30,000 lines per inch we have a total flux of 1,920,000 lines through the armature. Our next step is to find how many times one wire must cut this number of lines of force to generate the required voltage, which we will say is 110. For this purpose we first divide 110 times 100,000,000 (which is the total number of lines to be cut per second) by the total flux

1,920,000 and obtain as the result 5,728. After this, in order to find the necessary number of wires to be placed upon the armature, we divide this (5,728) by the number of revolutions the armature makes per second. If our armature revolves at the rate of 20 turns per second (1,200 per minute) we shall need one-twentieth of 5,728 wires placed upon it. This is equal to 286. As the armature, 8 inches in diameter, has a circumference of 25.12 inches this gives us a wire running about 11 to the inch. If there is to be but one layer we shall need a number 12 wire. As the two sides of the armature are in parallel we have according to Table I a capacity of 2 times 14.31. If instead of one layer we decide to use two we can use number 6 wire with 5.5 turns per inch, which will give us a capacity of 56.56 amperes.

It may be stated in explanation of the calculations here made that each wire in the course of one revolution cuts the total flux two times; but as the two halves of the armature are in parallel each side must produce the full voltage of the machine.

The question of how much current can be allowed in a given wire requires some study. It depends to a great extent upon the manner in which the armature is to be used. The heating in any wire is proportional to the square of the current used. During the time that no current is passing the heat is of course rapidly dissipated so that if an armature is used intermittently we can subject it to a much greater current than would be possible if it were in use continually.

All calculations of current carrying capacity must be based upon a certain radiating surface per unit of energy consumed. The greater this radiating surface the less will be the heating. The amount of radiating surface allowed in armatures varies from one square inch per watt to three square inches. About 1.75 will insure a cool operating armature.

In the attached tables I and II the carrying capacity of the different wires is given. These tables are figured from the formula $I = \sqrt{\frac{r s}{a \times R}}$, r. s. being the radiating surface and R the resistance of a unit of wire under consideration. In the formula a stands for the amount of radiating surface in square inches per watt we desire to have. In table I it stands for 3 and in table II for 1. This formula gives the current allowed where the wire is wound in one layer. As we add more layers we must with each successive layer reduce the current so that the watts consumed shall be always the same. No matter how many layers deep we may wind an armature we do not appreciably increase the radiating surface, therefore in order to keep the proportions of energy and emissivity the same the watts must remain the same.

Since $I^2 \times R$ equals the watts permissible in one layer, and since two layers have double the value of R, for a depth of two layers I^2 must be only half of what it

TABLE I.

Table showing current carrying capacity of different wires at different depths of winding, 3 sq. in. radiating surface per watt.

B. & S. Gauge.	Diameter bare.	Resistance per foot 140° F.	Diameter D. C. C.	Amperes at different depths of winding layers.						Number of wires per inch.	I^2
				1	2	3	4	5	6		
4	.2043	.000283	.224	56.28	39.74	32.42	28.12	25.15	22.97	4.45	3166
5	.1819	.000357	.200	47.30	33.46	27.33	23.66	21.16	19.31	5.00	2240
6	.1620	.000450	.180	40.00	28.28	23.08	20.00	17.88	16.34	5.5	1600
7	.1413	.000567	.158	33.40	23.60	19.28	16.67	14.93	13.63	6.3	1114
8	.1285	.000715	.144	28.35	20.04	16.37	14.17	12.68	11.57	7.0	805
9	.1144	.000902	.130	24.00	16.97	13.85	12.00	10.72	9.74	7.7	576
10	.1019	.001137	.117	20.27	14.31	11.70	10.14	9.05	8.24	8.6	411
11	.0907	.001436	.106	17.19	12.12	9.69	8.60	7.68	7.00	9.6	295
12	.0808	.00181	.093	14.31	10.09	8.24	7.14	6.40	5.83	10.7	205
13	.0719	.00228	.084	12.12	8.54	7.00	6.08	5.38	4.89	11.9	147
14	.0640	.00288	.075	10.19	7.21	5.91	5.09	4.58	4.12	13.3	104
15	.0570	.00362	.067	8.60	6.08	4.95	4.30	3.87	3.50	15.0	74
16	.0508	.00458	.059	7.14	5.04	4.12	3.57	3.19	2.91	17.0	51
17	.0452	.00575	.053	6.08	4.30	3.5	3.04	2.64	2.47	19.0	37
18	.0403	.00727	.048	5.09	3.00	2.94	2.54	2.28	2.08	21 0	26
19	.0358	.00916	.044	4.36	3.08	2.52	2.18	1.97	1.78	22.7	19
20	.0319	.01153	.040	3.74	2.64	2.16	1.87	1.67	1.52	25.0	14
21	.0284	.01454	.036	3.14	2.22	1.81	1.57	1.39	1.28	28.0	9.9
22	.0253	.01845	.033	2.66	1.87	1.54	1.33	1.19	1.09	30.3	7.1
23	.0225	.0231	.030	2.28	1.61	1.30	1.14	1.01	.94	33.3	5.2
24	.0201	.0295	.028	1.94	1.37	1.14	.97	.86	.80	35.7	3.8
25	.0179	.0365	.026	1.70	1.18	.98	.85	.80	.74	38.4	2.9
26	.0159	.0461	.024	1.41	1.00	.82	.71	.63	.57	42.0	2.0
27	.0142	.0603	.022	1.18	.78	.68	.59	.52	.47	45.5	1.4
28	.0126	.0744	.021	1.04	.72	.60	.52	.47	.42	48.0	1.1
29	.0112	.0925	.020	.92	.65	.52	.46	.42	.38	50.0	.86
30	.0100	.1181	.018	.77	.54	.44	.38	.35	.31	56.0	.61

TABLE II.

Table showing current carrying capacity of different wires at different depths of winding, 1 sq. in. radiating surface per watt.

B. & S. Gauge.	Diameter bare.	Resistance per foot 140° F.	Diameter D. C. C.	Amperes at different depths of winding layers.						Number turns per inch.	I^2
				1	2	3	4	5	6		
4	.2043	.000283	.224	97.36	68.75	55.88	48.64	43.50	39.73	4.45	9498
5	.1819	.000357	.200	81.82	57.88	47.27	40.87	36.60	33.40	5.00	6720
6	.1620	.000450	.180	69.20	48.92	39 92	34.60	30.93	28.28	5.5	4800
7	.1413	.000567	.158	57.78	40.82	33.35	28.91	25.86	23.60	6.3	3344
8	.1285	.000715	.144	49.04	34.66	28.37	24.57	21.97	20.07	7.0	2416
9	.1144	.000902	.130	41.52	29.37	24.00	20.76	18.60	16.97	7.7	1728
10	.1019	.001137	.117	35.06	24.81	20.27	17.54	15.71	14.35	8.6	1233
11	.0907	.001436	.106	29.74	21.02	17.17	14.86	13.30	12.12	9.6	885
12	.0808	.00181	.093	24.79	17.52	14.31	12.40	11.09	10.09	10.7	615
13	.0719	.00228	.084	21.00	14.86	12.12	10.50	9 38	8.54	11.9	441
14	.0640	.00288	.075	17.66	12.49	10.19	8.83	7.88	7.21	13.3	312
15	.0570	.00362	.067	14.89	10.53	8.60	7.44	6.66	6.08	15.0	222
16	.0508	.00458	.059	12.40	8.77	7.21	6.20	5.56	5.09	17.0	154
17	.0452	.00575	.053	10.53	7.44	6.08	5.26	4.71	4.30	19.0	111
18	.0403	.00727	.048	8.88	6.28	5.12	4.44	3.97	3.63	21.0	79
19	.0358	.00916	.044	7.54	5.34	4.35	3.76	3.37	3.08	22.7	57
20	.0319	.01153	.040	6.49	4.58	3.74	3.24	2.89	2.64	25.0	42
21	.0284	.01454	.036	5.38	3.80	3.11	2.68	2.40	2.19	28.0	29
22	.0253	.01845	.033	4.58	3.24	2.64	2.28	2.04	1.87	30.3	21
23	.0225	.0231	.030	4.00	2.82	2.30	2.00	1.78	1.64	33.3	16
24	.0201	.0295	.028	3.37	2.38	1.94	1.67	1.51	1.37	35.7	11.4
25	.0179	.0365	.026	2.93	2.07	1.67	1.44	1.30	1.18	38.4	8.6
26	.0159	.0461	.024	2.49	1.76	1.44	1.22	1.09	1.00	42.0	6.2
27	.0142	.0603	.022	2.07	1.44	1.18	1.04	.94	.84	45.5	4.3
28	.0126	.0744	.021	1.78	1.26	1.04	.89	.78	.71	48.0	3.2
29	.0112	.0925	.020	1.61	1.14	.94	.79	.71	.65	50.0	2.6
30	.0100	.1181	.018	1.34	.95	.78	.64	.60	.55	56.0	1.8

would be for one layer, and for any depth of winding we can find the permissible current by dividing I^2 for one layer by the number of layers and extracting the square root. These values have been calculated for all of the sizes of wire given in the tables and the carrying capacities may be read off for any depth of winding up to six layers.

As a general guide we may bear in mind that, as we multiply the number of layers by 4, 16, 64, 256, we each time halve the carrying capacity of the wire. From this we can see that the carrying capacity of the wires after a certain depth of winding has been considered decreases very slowly, though very fast with the first few layers. As we have already seen that we can vary different factors and that several of them are not accurately determinable, great accuracy in these calculations is not absolutely necessary.

If the wire we have found by the previous calculation does not give us sufficient carrying capacity we take the next larger wire or such a wire as will give us the desired current capacity and from this wire figure out the dimensions of a new armature. If we use the same number of wires of a larger diameter we shall, of course, obtain a greater cross section of armature. Thus it can readily be seen that in many cases unless we are very lucky, a number of calculations will be necessary before we obtain the proportions that suit us best.

In the foregoing calculation we have considered a smooth armature in which the whole circumference is available for winding. In connection with slotted armatures we have a large space occupied by the teeth that cannot be used for winding and therefore we must, instead of figuring on the whole circumference figure on that portion of it which forms the slots only. As a general rule, however, the attainable flux in a slotted armature is greater as the magnetic circuit is much better.

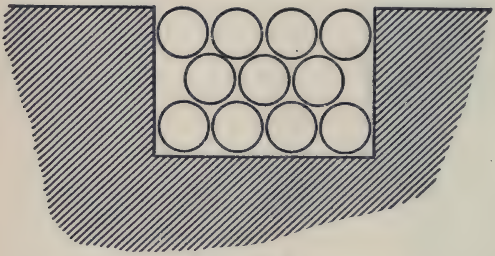


Figure 108.

In order to calculate the wire for a slotted armature we must figure on one slot by itself and the wire should be chosen if possible with reference as to how it will fill out the slot. Waste spaces, if any, can, of course, be filled out with insulation.

If the wires to be used are small they will very likely come to lie in the slots as shown in Figure 108 and if large as in Figure 109. For Figure 108 the approximate depth necessary for the slot can be found by multiplying the number of layers by .86 and this by the diameter of the wire. The width of the slot can be found by multiplying the diameter of the wire by the number of turns per layer.

After we have finally settled upon some size of wire we had best check up and see what the loss in pressure with this wire will be. To do this we first find from table I the resistance per foot of the wire in question and then measure the length in feet of the wire in one coil and multiply the resistance by the number of feet. If we have a bi-polar armature we again multiply this by half the number of coils (the two sides being in parallel). Since the loss in voltage is equal to the amperes multiplied by the resistance, we need but multiply the resistance so found by half the current to find the loss in voltage that will occur. This loss is of course

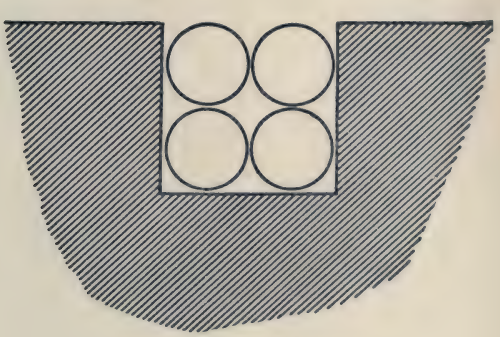


Figure 109.

in direct proportion to the current. It is not of much importance in armatures used for small currents or on constant current systems, but with heavy and variable current it is very important that it be kept as low as possible.

CHAPTER IX.

ALTERNATING CURRENTS.

An alternating current differs from a continuous current in that it is constantly changing, both in quantity and direction. It is customary to represent such currents graphically by means of curves such as are given in Figure 109a. That portion of the curve which rises above the base line is usually assumed to be positive and that below as negative. The current strength or the E. M. F. represented at any instant are equal to the height of a vertical line drawn from the base line to where it intersects the curve.

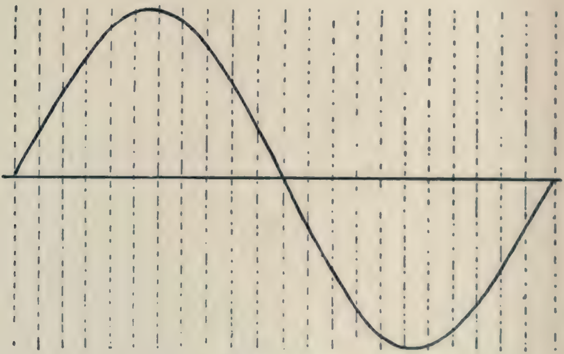


Figure 109a.

This continual change in strength and direction of the current gives rise to a very important phenomenon which is not very noticeable in connection with direct currents. This is the phenomenon of self induction. The term expresses the fact that an alternating current induces a counter E. M. F. in the very wires in which it circulates. This counter E. M. F, as the name implies, always opposes the impressed E. M. F. and is always in proportion to the rate of change of the current which causes it, that is, the more rapid these changes occur the greater is the self induction. This self induction is caused by the lines of force which spring up around a conductor in which a current of electricity flows, as illustrated in Figure 109b. These lines, in springing into existence, cut the wire from which they start in one direction and when they cease, as the current ceases, they cut the wire in the opposite direction. It is this cutting of the wire by the lines of force which produces the counter E. M. F. of self induction.

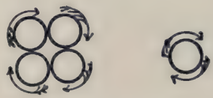


Figure 109b.

It is obvious that in the case of a single wire if this have a certain effect that, if we place a number of wires close together (as in winding an armature or magnet coil) the lines of force springing out from one wire will cut all of the wires of that coil and thus increase the effect. Thus, if we take as an example a coil of four turns, the current in one wire would have 4 times the effect as before, and if the same current flow around all of the wires this fourfold effect will again be multiplied by 4, which will give us a self induction 16 times as great as that of a single turn. From this example we can see that the self induction is proportional to the square of the number of turns in a coil and that a coil to be used for alternating currents must not be made up of a great number of turns.

Figure 109c.

ALTERNATING CURRENT GENERATORS.

A typical alternating current generator as manufactured by the Westinghouse Co. is shown in Figure 109c.

Alternators are built with either the field or armature stationary or revolving. The Figure shows a machine in which the armature is stationary and the fields revolve. The fields in this case consist of 13 pairs of electro-magnets, the magnetic circuit of each pair being as illustrated in Figure 109d. These magnetic fields in sweeping along the inner surface of the wires cut them in a manner which has precisely the same effect as though the wires were being moved and the magnets held stationary, as is the case in direct current machines.

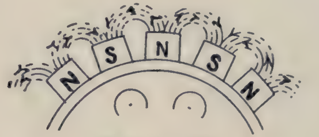


Figure 109d.

The fields, whether mounted upon the moving part or upon the stationary frame must be supplied by direct current and for this purpose a small direct current dynamo is usually supplied with alternators.

In the case of a revolving armature and stationary fields machine the windings shown in Figure 109c on the stationary element are placed upon the moving element and the electro magnets which make up the fields are placed upon the stationary element.

ALTERNATING CURRENT ARMATURES.

The simplest form of armature winding from which an alternating current can be obtained is shown in Figure 109e, where a single loop of wire revolves in a magnetic field produced by two pole pieces. During one complete revolution of the loop of wire a current is produced which flows in one direction during one half a revolution and in the opposite direction during the remainder of the revolution, or as indicated by the curve Figure 109a.

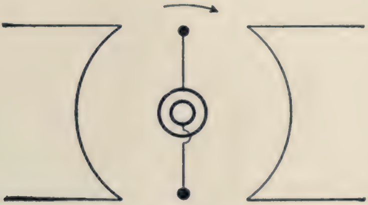


Figure 109e.

During one complete revolution or "cycle" the current alternates or reverses in direction twice. There are therefore in a given time twice as many alternations as cycles. If the loop of wire revolves at the rate of 60 revolutions per second a current would be produced which would pass through 60 cycles per second. This is equivalent to 120 alternations per second or 7,200 alternations per minute. Machines are generally rated at a certain number of cycles per second or alternations per minute, the former rating being more generally used.

It is evident that in order to generate a 60 cycle current the armature described above would have to revolve at the rate of 3,600 revolutions per minute. Such a speed would, obviously, be impractical. If the number of poles was increased to eight, or four pairs, one revolution of the loop of wire would produce a current which would pass through four cycles per revolution. A 60 cycle current could then be produced with a speed of 900 revolutions per minute.

While the simple loop of wire affords an easy method of explaining the action of the armature it is evident that an armature with a winding of this kind would be useless. The potential developed would be small and, assuming a field consisting of four pair of poles, most of the armature space would not be used. If, instead of the simple loop of wire, we should provide a system of wires as shown in Figure 109f we would still produce a current which would pass through four cycles per revolution, but, as we are cutting four times as many lines of force, four times the E. M. F. will be developed.

In Figure 109f the straight lines radiating from the center and marked by arrow heads indicate the conductors crossing the face of a drum armature, while the lines connecting the outer ends represent the connections at the rear of the armature and the lines connecting the inner ends those at the front of the armature. Two of the lines are carried direct to the two collector rings upon which the brushes bear. This form of winding is perfectly practical and is often used on machines generating a low voltage and heavy current.

Following out the changes which occur during a revolution of the armature it will be seen that, so far as the direction of current is concerned the action is similar to that described in the first case using the single loop

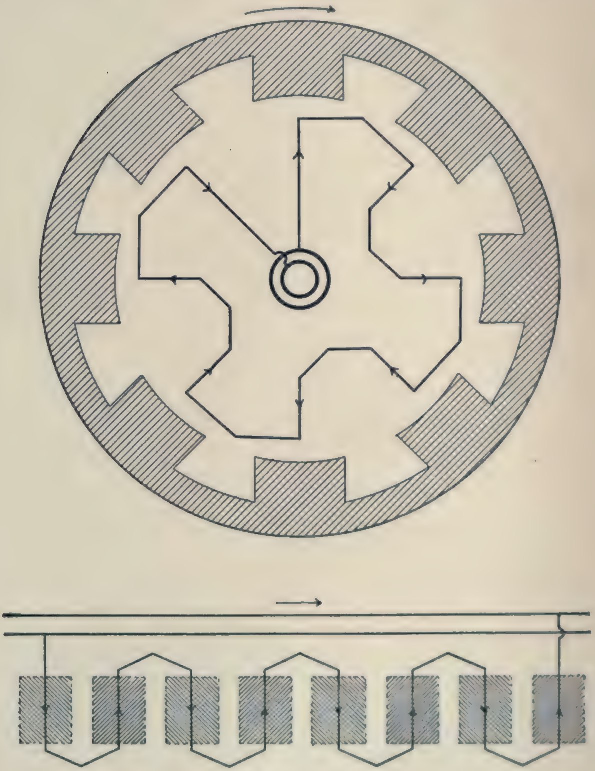


Figure 109f.

of wire except that here we have four pairs of poles. The number of poles can be increased to any number within practical limits but for an increase in the number of poles there must be a corresponding increase in the number of armature conductors.

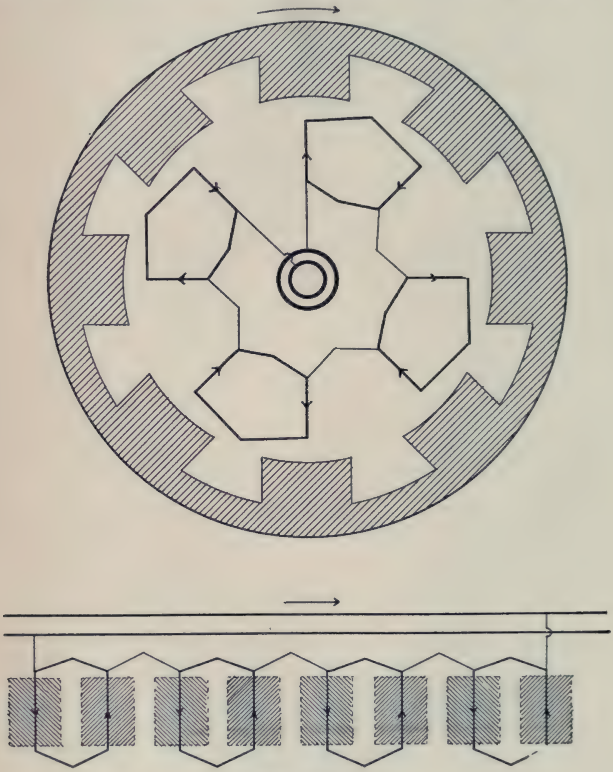


Figure 109g.

An increase in voltage may be obtained in several ways. The magnetic field may be increased. The speed of rotation may be made greater or the number of wires on the armature cutting through the field of force may be increased. The first of these means is limited by the design of the field. The second, the speed, is generally determined by the number of cycles to be produced. Therefore, as with direct current machines it is customary to increase the number of armature conductors for an increase in voltage.

The single conductor for each pair of poles shown in Figure 109f may be replaced by a number of conductors wound in the form of a coil (see page 129) and having the ends of each coil connected as shown in Figure 109g. An investigation of the changes occurring during a revolution will show that these occur uniformly in all conductors and a current will be produced which will vary in exactly the same manner as previously explained with the difference however that a considerably increased E. M. F. is now obtained.

This armature, even though wound with coils as described for Figure 109g, would still have considerable armature space unused, there being only one coil for each pair of poles. To take advantage of the unused spaces the method of winding shown in Figure 109h is employed. Here two coils for each pair of poles are spaced uniformly around the armature, there being eight poles and eight coils or, if in place of a coil separate conductors are used, there would be 16 conductors.

It will be noticed that the connection between the various coils do not occur regularly, only alternate coils

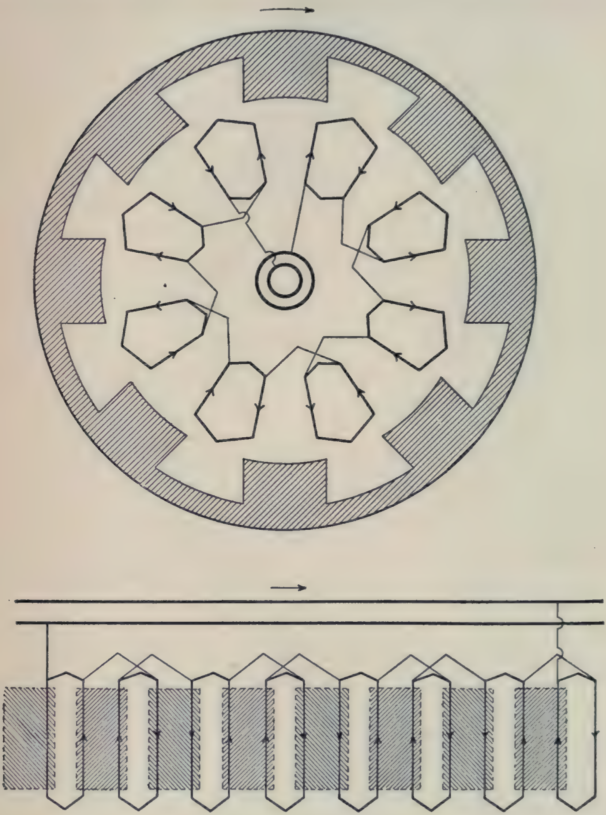


Figure 109h.

being connected in the same manner. The reason for this will be made clear by reference to the simplified diagram Figure 109i, which represents two coils (or four conductors) in a bi-polar field. The dotted lines represent the connections at the rear of the armature and the solid lines the connections at the front. The connections shown in the figure are identical with those shown in Figure 109h, but for one pair of poles.

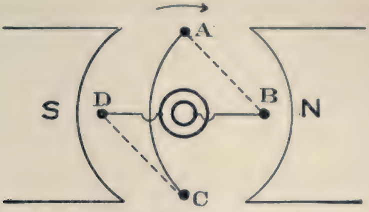


Figure 109i.

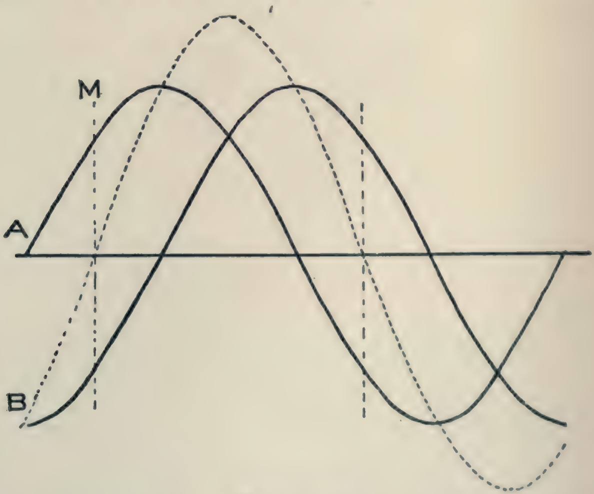


Figure 109j.

To ascertain the conditions with this connection refer to Figure 109j, where the variations in the induced E. M.

F. in conductors *A* and *B* are shown during one revolution. Similar changes will, of course, occur in conductors *C* and *D,* but for the sake of simplicity only two conductors are shown. The curve A represents the E. M. F's. in conductor *A* and the curve B those in *B*, but as these two conductors are connected together at the rear of the armature, E. M. F's. induced in the same direction will oppose each other and the curve is therefore shown 180° out of place. This may perhaps be better explained by illustration. When conductors A and B occupy similar positions with relation to the pole piece N, (i. e., cut lines in the same direction) A having arrived at a point just inside the tip of the pole piece and B is just about to leave the other tip of the pole piece positive E. M. F's. of equal amounts will be induced in both conductors, but as they are connected together at the rear of the armature, the resultant E. M. F. will be 0. This is shown at M, Figure 109 j. The curve shown by the dotted line represents the resultant E. M. F. during one revolution. It will be seen that the two conductors A and B oppose each other during part of the revolution and as a consequence of this the combined voltage is somewhat less than with an equal number of conductors placed one to a pole piece.

There are, however, important advantages gained by this form of winding, as in the lessening of armature reaction on loads, more convenience in winding and more radiating surface. This style of winding is extensively used.

The subdivision may be carried still further, and three or four sets of coils provided per pole piece, but the E. M. F. at the machine terminals will be still further decreased.

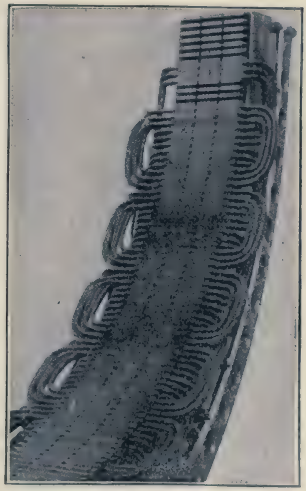


Figure 109k.

There are numerous methods of placing and connecting conductors on single-phase armatures. In the manufacture of machines for instance, it may be desirable to use the same form of armature for either single phase or two- or three-phase currents, and the windings are sometimes arranged so that this change may be made by simply using different connections for the same winding.

By reference to Figures 109k and 109l, we can get a clearer conception of alternators in which the armatures are stationary and the field revolves. Figure 109k shows part of stator of an Allis Chalmers generator. The winding used is diagrammatically laid out in Figure 109l.

The winding shown in Figure 109l is identical with that of Figure 109h, with the exception that it is spread out so as to cover the whole inner surface of the stator.

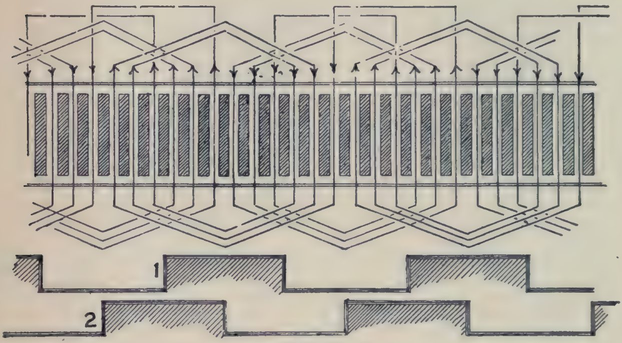


Figure 109l.

This has the double advantage of lessening the heating, because it provides greater radiating surface for the wires and also lessens the selfinduction of the armature.

This latter is an important item. The selfinduction acts as a counter E. M. F., which opposes the impressed E. M. F. It is proportional to the rate of change of the current strength and therefore varies with the frequency and the quantity of current used. In any given coil it is also proportional to the square of the number of turns of wire in that coil. If the 3 turns of which each coil in Figure 109l consists were all bunched into one, the inductance of that coil would be proportional to the square of 3, which is 9, while being separated as they are, it is equal only to the square of 1. In order to gain these advantages, it is, however, necessary to make some sacrifices in E. M. F.

In Figure 109l the shaded portions below the diagram represent the revolving pole pieces of the field. While these are in the position indicated at 1, no E. M. F. is being generated since an equal number of coils in the armature are opposing each other. When the fields assume the position shown at 2 the armature is generating at its maximum capacity. It can be seen from the above that a large part of the winding is practically dead during a great part of the time.

TWO-PHASE ARMATURES.

A two-phase or quarter phase winding with one conductor per pole, per phase, is shown in Figure 109m. It will be seen that this winding consists of two groups of conductors, each one of which is exactly similar to the single-phase winding shown in Figure 109f. Two entirely separate sets of conductors with their separate collector rings are provided.

The characteristics of the currents produced by this winding may be more easily understood from the simplified armature shown in Figure 109n. The currents produced in the armature are shown by the curves in Figure 109o, curve A representing the changes in the current in coil AA and curve B the current in coil BB. These two currents differ in phase by 90°.

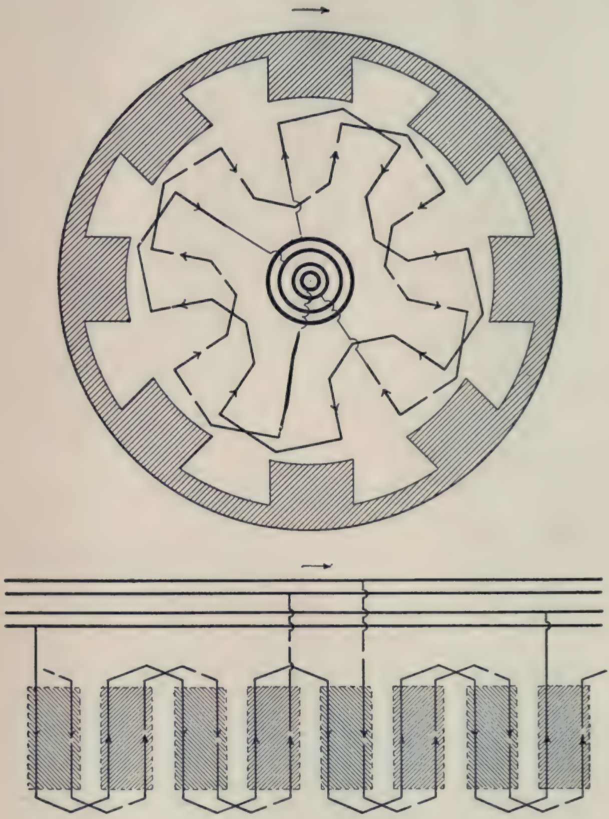


Figure 109m.

In place of the single conductors, former coils may be used, each individual set of coils being connected as shown in Figure 109g.

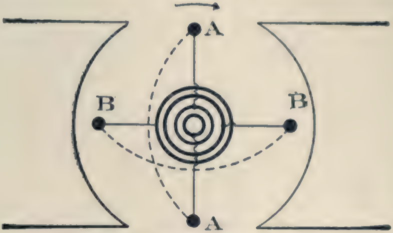


Figure 109n.

A two-phase winding, using two coils per phase, per pair of poles, is shown in Figure 109p. The coils are so arranged that when a slotted armature is used, adjacent sides of coils may be placed in the same slot.

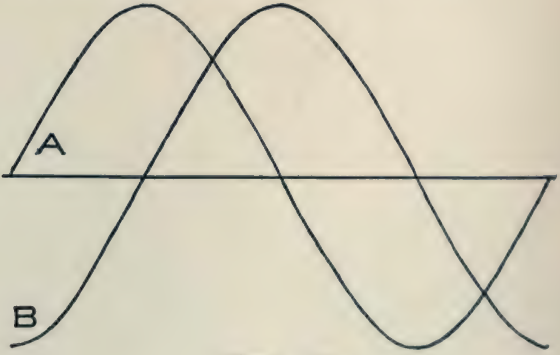


Figure 109o.

Two-phase armatures may be connected to three collector rings in place of the four shown in Figure 109p, one of the collector rings forming a common return for the two phases. The conditions may be represented by Figure 109q, where the lines OA and OB represent the

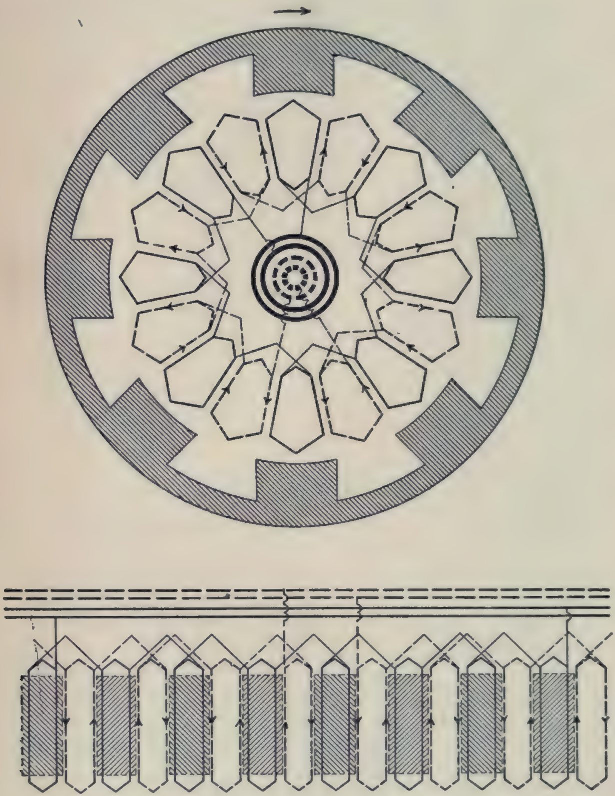


Figure 109p.

two armature phase conductors and the line from O the common return. The current on a balanced non-inductive load in the common return wire is equal to 1.4 times that in either phase wire. The E. M. F. between the phase wires A and B is equal to 1.4 times the E. M. F. in either phase.

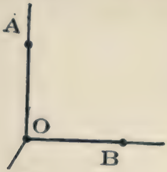


Figure 109q.

THREE-PHASE ARMATURES.

A three-phase armature winding is shown in Figure 109s. There are three conductors to each pole piece being spaced uniformly around the armature.

Figure 109t, which represents identical connections with Figure 109s, but is arranged for a bi-polar field, will give a better understanding of the relations of the currents in the three sets of conductors. In this figure three loops of wire form the armature conductors. Each conductor AA, BB and CC are connected diametrically across at the rear of the armature. One end of each loop is connected to a common wire, while the remaining ends are separately connected to three collector rings.

If, instead of the common wire above referred to, six collector rings were used, each coil having its own terminals, a single-phase current could be obtained from each coil.

The curves Figure 109u represent the currents induced in the conductors during one revolution of the armature. Curve A represents the currents in coil AA, curve B that in coil BB and curve C that in CC. It

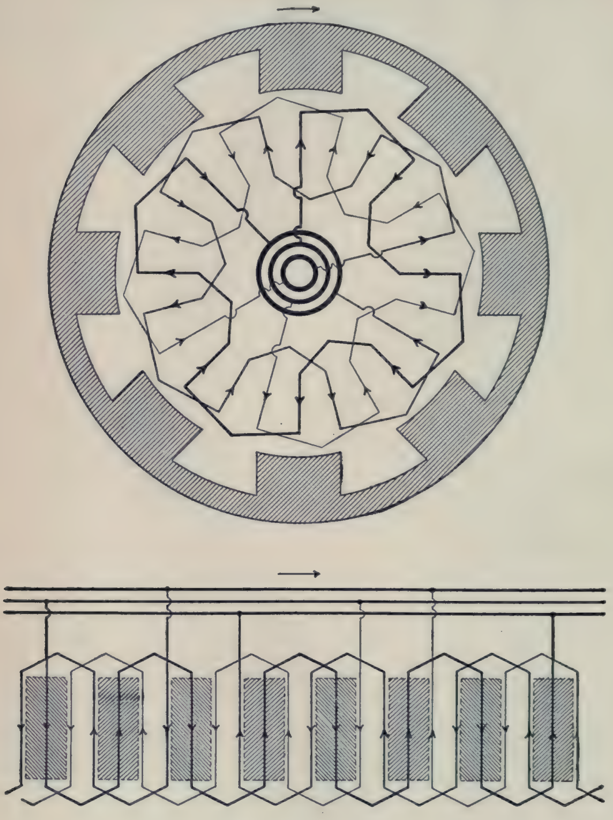


Figure 109s.

will be noted that conductor B, Figure 109t, occupies a position 120° behind conductor A, and conductor C occupies a position 120° behind conductor B and 240° behind conductor A. The currents in the conductors B and C will therefore attain a positive maximum 120° and 240° respectively, behind the current in conductor A or as indicated by the curves Figure 109u.

It will be seen by reference to the curves Figure 109u that at any point, the algebraic sum of the curves is 0.

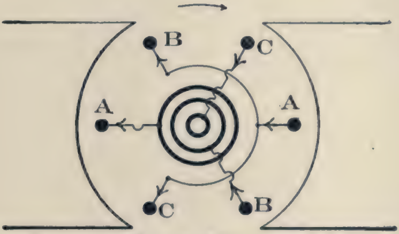


Figure 109t.

For instance, at point 2 current in B is at a positive maximum, while current in A and C is negative and of half the strength, their sum is therefore 0. Likewise at point 3 current in C is 0, while currents in A and B are opposite and of equal values, their sum also being 0. This is true of any point we may select on the curves. It is evident that by a proper connection of the conductors, one end of each may be brought to a common point. As the currents at this point always neutralize each other, it is unnecessary, at least theoretically, to carry a wire from this connection. In practice this fourth wire is often brought out, as the load connected to the machine may not be evenly balanced, as for instance, where lights are connected between the phases. It is also sometimes desirable to use single-phase motors connected between one of the phase wires and the common wire. This wire will only have to carry the unbalanced load.

The proper manner of connecting the armature may be readily determined from Figure 109t.

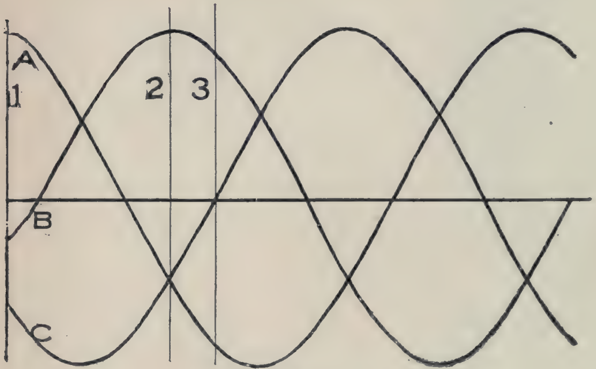


Figure 109u.

Considering the conductors as occupying the position as shown in Figure 109t, the currents in the conductors will then be as shown at Point 1, Figure 109u being a positive maximum in A and of half the strength and negative in direction in B and C.

It is evident that these three wires can be joined at a common point. Considering current flowing away from the center of the armature Figure 109t as positive, wire

A which occupies a position where the current is at a maximum strength in a positive direction can then be connected to wire B and C in which the current is negative (toward the center of the armature) and of only half strength, as shown by the position of these wires relative to the pole pieces.

This is known as the "star" or Y connection and is represented diagrammatically in Figure 109v. The voltage between any of the phases A, B or C and the common point M, is, of course, the voltage developed by one set of armature conductors. The voltage between any two of the phases as A and B, is equal to 1.73 times the voltage developed in any one set of armature conductors. As an example: If the voltage across A and M is 100, the voltage across AB, BC or CA will be 173. The watts output with a balanced, non-inductive load will be equal to 1.73 IE, where I is the current in any one of the phases, A, B or C and E, the voltage between any two phase wires, AB, BC or CA.

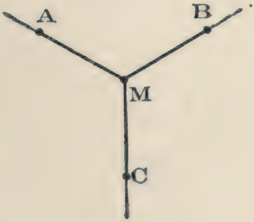


Figure 109v.

Figure 109w shows another method of connecting three-phase armatures. It is known as the "delta" or "mesh" connection and is represented diagrammatically in Figure 109x. The ends of each coil are connected to

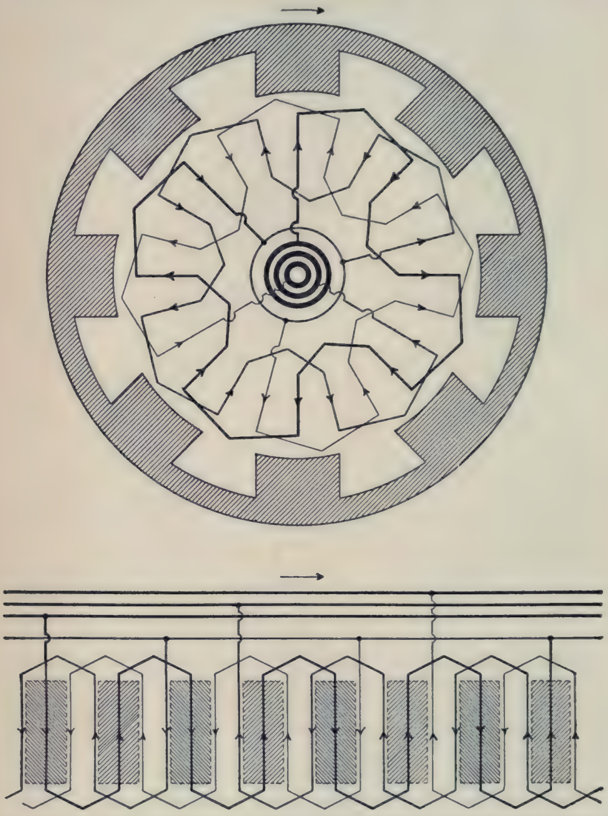


Figure 109w.

the ends of the others, these junction points being brought to collector rings. The voltage between phases is, in this case, the same as the voltage across any one set of armature conductors. The current, however, in any phase wire, is the resultant of the currents generated in the two sets of conductors connected to it and is equal to 1.73 times the current generated in any set of armature conductors. For instance, if 100 amperes was generated in one set of armature conductors as AB, the current in phase wire A would be 1.73 amperes. The watts output would be the same as in the previous case or 1.73 EI where E is the voltage between any two phases as AB, and I the current in any one of the phase wires beyond the point of their junction.

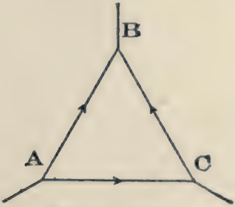


Figure 109x.

The method of joining the wires for a delta connection may be explained by means of the diagram, Figure 109x. The three lines A, B and C represent the three sets of conductors on the armature. Considering that line A represents conductor A, which occupies the position in the center of the pole pieces, it is evident that this conductor is generating its maximum current in a direction which is indicated by the arrowhead, Figure 109x. Each end of this coil may be connected to a collector ring. The negative side of conductor B may now be connected to the same collector ring as the negative side of conductor A and the positive side of conductor C connected to the same collector ring as the positive side of conductor A. The remaining ends of conductor B and C are now connected to the remaining collector ring. This diagram may be compared with the armature connection shown in Figure 109w.

A three-phase armature with coils instead of single conductors and one coil per phase for each pole piece is shown in Figure 109y. The armature shown is star connected, but may be connected delta by following the directions as described for Figure 109x.

Numerous other schemes of winding are employed for three-phase armatures. More than one coil per phase for each pole piece are sometimes provided and the armature conductors are not uniformly placed as regards the pole pieces, the object being to avoid dead centers where the winding is used for a motor armature.

While the term armature is generally applied to the revolving element of an electrical machine, in alternating current machines the armature is often made stationary and the fields arranged to revolve within it. The diagrams previously shown may be used for machines of this type by simply reversing the conditions shown, but in this case only one pair of collector rings will be used to convey the direct current to the revolving fields. The terminals of the three-phase windings on the stationary

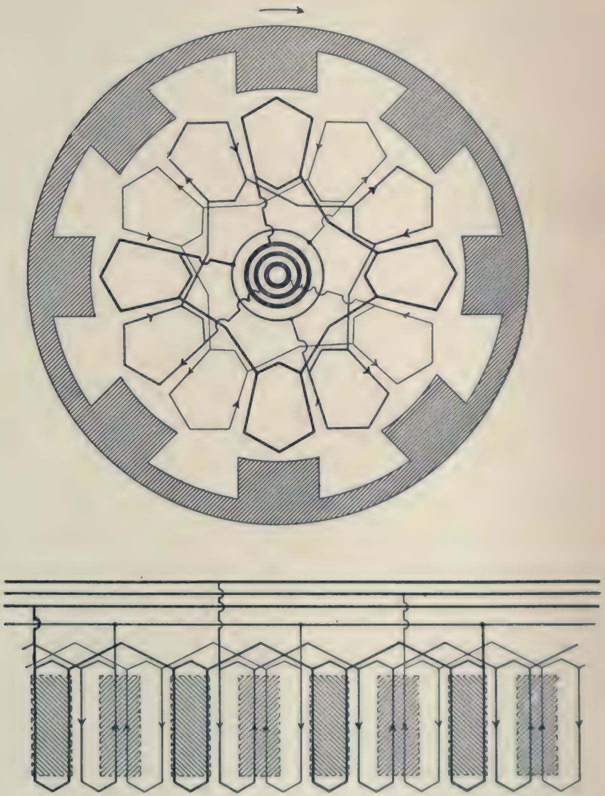


Figure 109y.

armature are simply brought to terminals mounted on the machine.

The squirrel cage armature is devoid of what could be termed a winding, being constructed of a number of copper bars embedded in the iron core of the armature, all the bars being connected together at each end of the armature by copper rings. The bars are insulated from the iron, but very little insulation is needed as the voltages existing are very low. An armature of this kind is shown in Figure 109z.

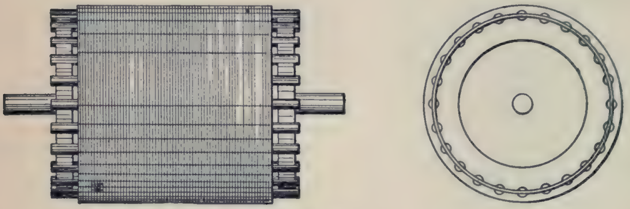


Figure 109z.

The squirrel cage armature has the disadvantage that it allows very heavy current to flow through the motor when it is started. To overcome this, the revolving element is provided with a winding arranged in the same manner as described for generator armatures. The connections for these windings differ however. They may either be wound in closed coils, one for each phase, or the ends of the separate coils may be brought to common junctions.

CHAPTER X.

MAGNET WINDING.

Calculation of Electro-Magnets.

Magnetism is now conceived to exist in the form of a flow or flux which behaves very much like the flow of electric current. The law of the magnetic circuit is very similar to Ohms law.

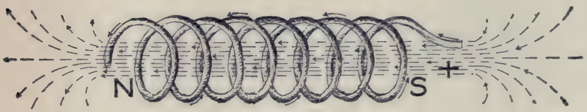
It is $\frac{\text{Magneto Motive Force}}{\text{Reluctance}} = \text{Magnetic Flux.}$

Magneto Motive Force means to magnetism what Electro Motive Force means to current flow. Reluctance is also of the same nature and influence as resistance in the electric circuit. Furthermore, the law of reluctance is the same as that of electrical resistance; it increases directly as the length and inversely as the cross section. The above formula can, of course, also be transposed in the same well known way as Ohms law, thus:

Magneto Motive Force = Flux × Reluctance, and

$$\frac{\text{Magneto Motive Force}}{\text{Flux}} = \text{Reluctance.}$$

The strength of the magnetic field is expressed by the number of lines of force per unit of area. These lines are assumed to flow along the iron or air inside of a helix at right angles to the current circulating around the space inclosed in the wires, as shown in the figure. They leave the coil at the north pole and re-enter it at the south pole and the relation in regard to direction of current flow and direction of magnetism is always as shown in the figure. A reversal of the direction of current will bring with it a reversal of the direction of the lines of force or polarity of the helix.



The fundamental relation of the quantity of current flow and the resultant magnetism is the following: A unit pole exists at the end of an infinitely long column of air of a cross section of one square centimeter which is provided with an exciting force of one absolute electromagnetic unit of current strength per centimeter in length. The absolute unit of current strength is equal to ten practical units or amperes and the exciting current in the above case is therefore equal to ten amperes. From such a pole one line of force per square centimeter of surface is supposed to emanate in all directions as from the surface of a sphere. The surface of a sphere of one centimeter radius, it can be shown, is equal to $4 \times \pi$ (or 3.14), which equals 12.56. As we, however, do not usually deal with the metric system, it will be convenient to translate these quantities into square inch measurements. We have already seen that the reluctance of the magnetic circuit decreases as the cross section of the air or iron inside of the helix increases and therefore, the flux per square inch must be greater than per square centimeter. If we, therefore, increase the diameter of our helix so that it shall have a cross section of one square inch we shall thereby correspondingly increase the number of lines. One inch is equal to 2.54 centimeters, therefore a surface one inch square will give us 2.54 × 2.54 as many lines as a surface one centimeter square. But as we increase the area to get square inch measurements we must also increase the length, as this again increases the reluctance 2.54 times we have as a net result the flux from a given exciting force per inch 2.54 times as great as from the same exciting force per centimeter.

We have already seen that the flux from a column of one centimeter cross section and one absolute unit of current strength is 12.56 and as the practical unit or ampere is but 1-10th of this, the flux per ampere turn per square centimeter is but 1.256. In order to find the number of lines that will be produced in air by one ampere turn per square inch we therefore multiply 1.256 by 2.54 which gives us 3.19, which is the number of lines of force created in air by one ampere turn (one ampere circulating once around a coil) in air; the cross section of the column of air being one square inch and there being one turn for every inch in length. If we increase the diameter of the coil the flow will be correspondingly increased; if we decrease it the flow will be decreased; also if we increase the exciting force the flow will be increased and vice versa.

INFLUENCE OF IRON.

If we now insert a piece of iron into the helix we shall find upon investigation that the flow is enormously increased. The increase caused in this way varies with the quality of the iron and also with the degree of magnetization to which the iron is subject. If to any piece of iron we apply a steadily increasing magnetizing force we shall at first find the magnetism steadily increasing in about the same proportion as the exciting force but after a certain point is reached (varying somewhat with the kind of iron) further magnetization becomes more and more difficult until at last the further increase is no greater than it would be with air. At this point the iron is said to be fully saturated. The various curves in Figure 16 represent these changes in the iron graphically and a study of them will help to familiarize us with this fact.

For whatever purposes an electro-magnet may be used we may always consider it as requiring a certain number of lines of force.

The condition of saturation to a certain degree; of being capable of lifting a certain number of pounds; of causing a certain induction when used for spark coils or transformers or of causing a retardation or lag of the current behind the electro-motive force may all be expressed in this way.

The first part of the problem in determining the proportions of an electro-magnet, is to find the size of the iron core that had best be used to accommodate the re-required number of lines of force. For this purpose it is most convenient to consult Table III. This table gives, in the first column to the left, the densities attainable with good wrought iron and at the right the same for ordinary cast iron. The data from which this table is figured are taken from Wiener's great work ''Dynamo Electric Machines'' and represent average values of many samples of iron tested. In this table we give only the best and the poorest iron used for this purpose. There are several special kinds of iron, but the data regarding these had best be obtained from the manufacturers. If very accurate results are aimed at the samples of iron to be used must be tested. If the figures given in the table are to be used as the basis of the calculations without special knowledge as to the quality of the iron at hand liberal allowances for possible variations should be made.

The table gives in the first column of each half of the page, the number of lines that can be obtained per

TABLE III.

Annealed Wrought Iron	Permeability μ	Ampere Turns	Lines in Air	Air Gap	Traction	Ordinary Cast Iron	Permeability μ	Ampere Turns	Lines in Air	Air Gap	Traction
125000	43.5	900.	2871	.68	216.	72500	32	700.	2233	.5	72.8
122500	47.5	800.	2552	.74	208.	70000	38	570.	1818	.6	67.9
120000	53.3	700.	2233	.83	199.	67500	45	470.	1499	.7	63.1
117500	61.4	600.	1914	.96	191.	65000	50	400.	1276	.78	58.5
115000	78	500.	1595	1.2	183.	62500	58	340.	1084	.91	54.1
112500	89	395.	1260	1.4	175.	60000	64	295.	941	1.0	49.9
110000	119	290.	925	1.8	168.	57500	70	257.	819	1.1	45.7
107500	177	190.	606	2.7	160.	55000	78	222.	708	1.2	41.9
105000	240	137.	437	3.7	153.	52500	87	189.	603	1.3	38.2
102500	298	108.	344	4.7	146.	50000	98	160.	510	1.5	34.6
100000	345	91.	290	5.4	138.	47500	109	136.	434	1.7	31.2
90000	548	50.7	162	8.5	112.	45000	121	116.	370	1.9	28.1
85000	669	39.7	127	10.4	100.	42500	132	101.	322	2.1	24.9
80000	800	31.2	100	12.5	88.7	40000	143	88.	280	2.2	22.2
75000	949	24.7	79	14.8	78.0	37500	155	76.	242	2.4	19.5
70000	1111	19.6	63	17.4	67.9	35000	169	65.	207	2.6	20.0
65000	1300	15.7	50	20.3	58.5	32500	178	57.	182	2.8	14.5
60000	1449	13.0	41.4	22.6	49.9	30000	189	50.	159	3.0	12.5
55000	1553	11.1	35.4	24.2	41.9	27500	196	44.	140	3.1	10.4
50000	1634	9.6	30.6	25.5	34.6	25000	201	39.	124	3.1	8.7
45000	1660	8.5	27.1	25.9	28.1	22500	204	34.5	110	3.2	7.1
40000	1673	7.5	23.9	26.1	22.2	20000	206	30.5	97.2	3.2	5.5
35000	1691	6.5	20.7	26.4	20.0	17500	202	27.1	81.4	3.1	4.2
30000	1714	5.5	17.5	26.8	12.5	15000	195	24.1	76.9	3.0	3.1
25000	1748	4.5	14.3	27.3	8.7	12500	183	21.3	68.0	2.9	2.0
20000	1786	3.5	11.2	28.0	5.5	10000	169	18.5	59.0	2.6	1.4
15000	1744	2.7	8.6	27.3	3.1	7500	147	16.0	51.0	2.3	.78
10000	1428	2.2	7.0	22.3	1.4	5000	124	13.0	41.5	1.9	.34
5000	909	1.7	5.5	14.2	.34	2500	87	9.0	28.7	1.4	.085

square inch; in the second column the permeability or multiplying power of the iron (usually designated by the Greek letter μ) at that particular density; in the third column we have the number of ampere turns per inch length of core, required to produce the corresponding density; in the fourth column the lines produced in air without the help of the iron and in the fifth column the influence of the air gap is made clear. In the last column, finally, we give the traction or pull in pounds obtained with the given density per square inch.

In order to produce a certain number of lines we may select the quantity of the iron to be used and the exciting force required from a wide range of possibilities. In all cases the number of lines from a given exciting force or number of ampere turns will depend upon the cross section of the iron, so that in order to get the total number of lines it is necessary to multiply the area by the density and the ampere turns given in the table will be sufficient to produce this number.

It may be noted in passing that much greater densities and much stronger lifting powers have been developed in laboratories. Ewing in some of his experiments carried the magnetization so far that his magnet became capable of lifting 1,000 pounds per square inch of surface.

By an inspection of the table it will be noted that the permeability is a very variable quantity. It represents the number of times that the flow of lines in iron is greater than the flow in air. At the highest density given, when the iron is nearly saturated, we see that it is only 43.5 while at a density of 20,000 it is as high as 1786. This means that at the lower density we get about 41 times as many lines from the same exciting force as we do at the higher.

In each column the figures given under "Air Gap" are intended to facilitate the calculations of the number of ampere turns necessary to force the corresponding flux through the air gap in the magnetic circuit. The figures given show how many times greater must be the exciting force for each 1-64th of an inch of air than is required for 1 inch of iron at the densities given in the various horizontal rows in the table.

To find the number of ampere turns required for any air gap we first find, for the density desired, the number of ampere turns per inch required for the kind of iron of which the pieces adjacent to the gap are made. Multiply this by the figures given under "Air Gap" and by the number of 64ths of an inch which represents the length of the air gap. It is, of course, understood that the air gap is of the same cross section as the pole pieces from which it is figured. If two cores are unusually expanded or contracted at the points where the lines of force pass between them this fact must be taken into account and the total number of ampere turns correspondingly increased or decreased.

In order to more fully grasp the meaning of the table let us assume the following example: Suppose we wish to magnetize a piece of iron to a density of 100,000 lines per square inch. We see from the table that this requires 91 ampere turns but this figure is based on the assumption that there are 91 turns to every inch in length of the whole magnetic circuit. In order to fulfill this condition the iron must be in the shape of a ring or closed loop which may be of any shape or size so long as it has the required number of turns per inch. It is not necessary that these turns be evenly distributed; if only a part of the space is available for winding we must crowd the requisite number of turns into that space. Now since the multiplying power of the iron at the density of 100,000 lines is 345 it follows that if we cut away 1 inch of the iron we shall require 345 times as many turns for that inch as would be required if the iron were to remain. The total number of turns will therefore be 345 × 91 for the air gap of 1 inch in length and 91 for each inch in length of the iron core. If the air gap is only 1-4th or 16-64ths of an inch we shall need $16 \times 5.4 = 86.4 \times 91$ for that quarter of an inch.

From a study of the table we can see that an addition of an inch or two to the length of the iron, in order to obtain room for the winding, will not affect the problem very much if the air gap is relatively large, while on the other hand it will be very important if the air gap is very small or entirely absent.

MAGNET WINDING CALCULATIONS.

In the following winding tables there is given, in connection with each wire considered, the resistance of that wire of a length of one turn wound upon a spool of 1 inch in diameter, as well as the radiating surface of the same length of wire and the number of turns per linear inch of that wire.

If we subject one such a turn to a certain E. M. F. we shall obtain a certain current which will be numerically equal to the E. M. F. divided by the resistance given. As this current circulates but once around the coil it will also be numerically equal to the ampere turns. If we add another turn of wire to the same cross section upon the same spool, we shall, from the same E. M. F. obtain only half as much current; but as this current circulates twice around the coil we shall have exactly the same number of ampere turns as before. No matter how far we may extend this process, so long as we do not change the length of the turns or change the voltage, we cannot change the number of ampere turns. We can see therefore that in order to obtain a certain number of ampere turns upon a given spool we must use a certain size of wire.

As the length of a turn and consequently its resistance increases directly as the diameter of the spool it is evident that the greater the diameter of the spool, the lower must be the resistance of the wire per foot, in order to give us the same number of ampere turns. We can also see from the above that the amount of energy required to produce a given number of ampere turns is not at all a fixed quantity and the greater the number of turns of wire we use the lower will be the expenditure of energy to produce the required magnetism. On the other hand also, the fewer turns we provide the lower will be the first cost of construction. We may therefore choose from a wide range of possibilities the winding which seems to be best suited to our needs.

As it is also a well known fact that the heating effect of an electric current is proportional to the square of the current and as the current grows smaller and smaller with each additional turn while the ampere turns remain unchanged, it follows that we may get a certain number of ampere turns with about any degree of temperature rise of the coil we may desire.

We have therefore the general rule: The size of the wire (i. e. cross section) determines the magnetizing effect, and the greater the cross section of the wire the greater the magnetizing effect, other factors remaining unchanged.

And also: The number of turns of wire we wind upon a coil determines the temperature rise of that coil and the efficiency; and the greater the number of turns the lower will be the heating and the higher the efficiency of the winding. We must not, however, apply this indiscriminately to all coils. It is true only as long as the length of the turns does not change as, for instance, where we are considering a change in length of the spool only. In most coils there are a number of layers wound over one another; in such a case each succeeding layer is longer than the one below it and consequently has a higher resistance. This brings with it

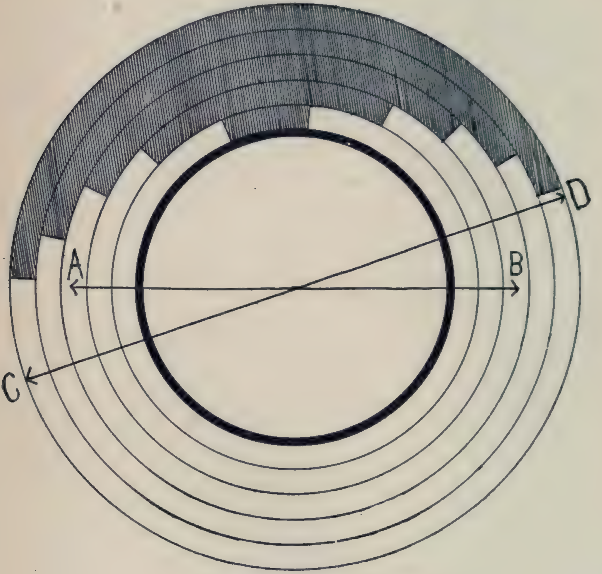


Figure 110.

a consequent decrease in the number of ampere turns. In order therefore to get the true values for a coil several layers deep we must use the mean diameter of all the layers. This consideration is more important with small spools where the diameter of the wire is large than with larger spools and small wire. This is well illustrated in Figure 110. In this figure the unshaded portions of the various circles are all of the same length and the shaded portions represent graphically the gradual increase of resistance of the outer layers over that of the inner. This figure can also be used, as we shall see later, to illustrate the changing proportions of resistance and radiating surface of coils.

Since $\frac{E}{R}$ = a.t., or ampere turns, $\frac{E}{a.t.} = R$; R, being the resistance as given in the table and a. t. the ampere turns. Since further resistance increases directly as the diameter of the spool and the mean diameter of the winding we may rewrite the formula thus:

$R = \frac{E}{a.t. \times D}$; R being the resistance of a turn of wire as given in the table and D being the diameter of the coil taken at half the depth of winding, as from A to B in Figure 110. This gives us the mean length of all the turns of wire placed upon the coil. Therefore, in order to find directly the resistance of a wire to be used in order to give a certain number of ampere turns with a given voltage and a given spool, we assume some depth of winding and find from this the mean diameter of all the turns. Next we multiply the ampere turns by this and divide the E. M. F. by this product as in the formula above. The result will be the

TABLE IV.

B. & S.	Single silk		Double silk		Dble. cotton		Resistance	I^2 3 sq. in. per watt. Cool	I^2 2 sq. in. per watt. Warm	I^2 1 sq. in. per watt. Hot
	Turns per inch	Radiating Surface	Turns per inch	Radiating Surface	Turns per inch	Radiating Surface				
40	193	.016	143	.022	90	.035	.273	.027	.04	.08
39	181	.017	133	.024	87	.047	.216	.036	.055	.11
38	169	.018	126	.025	84	.037	.172	.046	.07	.14
37	156	.020	119	.026	81	.039	.136	.070	.10	.20
36	143	.022	111	.028	77	.041	.108	.086	.13	.26
35	131	.024	104	.030	73	.043	.075	.13	.20	.40
34	120	.026	97	.032	69	.045	.068	.15	.23	.46
33	111	.028	91	.035	66	.047	.054	.22	.32	.64
32	101	.031	83	.038	63	.050	.043	.29	.44	.88
31	91	.034	77	.041	59	.053	.034	.37	.56	1.12
30	83	.038	71	.044	55	.056	.027	.54	.81	1.62
29	76	.041	67	.047	53	.059	.022	.72	1.07	2.14
28	68	.046	60	.052	48	.065	.017	1.0	1.5	3.00
27	63	.050	55	.056	45	.069	.014	1.3	2.0	4.00
26	56	.055	50	.062	41	.075	.011	1.9	2.8	5.60
25	50	.062	46	.069	38	.081	.0084	2.7	4.1	8.2
24	45	.069	42	.075	35	.088	.0070	3.5	5.3	10.6
23	41	.077	37	.083	32	.095	.0053	5.2	7.8	15.6
22	36	.086	34	.092	30	.104	.0042	7.3	11.0	22.
21	33	.094	31	.101	28	.113	.0034	10.	15.0	30.
20	29	.106	27	.113	25	.126	.0026	14.	21.	42.
19	26	.119	25	.126	22	.138	.0021	20.	30.	60.
18	24	.132	22	.138	21	.151	.0017	27.	40.	80.
17	21	.148	20	.154	19	.166	.0013	39.	59.	118.
16	19	.166	18	.173	17	.185	.0011	52.	78.	156.
15			16	.191	15	.204	.00083	70.	105.	210.
14			15	.213	14	.226	.00066	107.	161.	322.
13			13	.238	12	.251	.00053	149.	224.	448.
12			12	.267	11	.279	.00042	217.	325.	650.
11			11	.298	10	.311	.00033	301.	451.	902.
10			9.5	.329	9.1	.342	.00026	421.	632.	1264.
9			8.4	.370	8.1	.383	.00021	587.	880.	1760.
8			7.5	.414	7.3	.428	.00016	842.	1262.	2524.
7			6.9	.455	6.8	.468	.00013	1167.	1750.	3500.
6			6.0	.521	5.8	.534	.00010	1680.	2521.	5042.

resistance of a wire 3.14 inches long that would give us exactly the number of ampere turns sought for. By selecting the nearest resistance to this from the table it will indicate the nearest size of wire which, wound to the depth we have assumed at the start, would give us the required number of ampere turns. As it is very unlikely that we shall strike exactly any number given in the table we may select the one nearest to it either higher or lower as the case may seem to warrant.

Example: What is the smallest wire that will give us 11,800 ampere turns upon a core 9 inches in diameter, voltage 110? Let us assume a depth of winding of one inch which gives us a mean diameter of ten inches. Next we divide 110 by 10 × 11,800, which gives us .00093; this is the resistance we must have in one turn of wire to give us 11,800 ampere turns. Tracing along in Table IV. under "Resistance" we come to .00083, which corresponds to a No. 15 wire. This resistance is a little lower than we were looking for and we may now check back and see what this wire will do for us. In order to find exactly how many ampere turns this wire will give us we divide 110 by 10 × .00083 (the resistance of an average turn on a 9 inch core), which gives us 13,253. As this is more than we care for, we try the next smaller wire, which has a resistance of .0011; dividing 110 by 10 × .0011 gives us 10,000. We may now choose either of these wires as we think best. If we desire to have exactly the right number of ampere turns we can either increase or decrease the depth of winding until it comes out just right for one or the other of the two wires.

Having thus found the proper size of wire to use, our next consideration is to find how many turns must be placed upon the spool to bring the heating within the proper limits. For general purposes it is customary to allow about 2 sq. inches of radiating surface for each watt used in the coils. The value of the radiating surface may, however, differ considerably from this. In connection with armatures it is often taken as low as 1 and this value may also often be used in connection with magnets that are in circuit only for a very short interval at a time. The more radiating surface there is allowed per watt the more expensive becomes the winding, hence it is usual to make this as low as practicable.

The watts in any electric circuit are equal to the E. M. F. squared and divided by the resistance. For the condition stated above (2 inches of surface for each watt) we must therefore arrange the coil so that $\frac{E^2}{R}$ may not be greater than $\frac{r.s.}{2}$; r.s. being the radiating surface. We may make r.s. as much greater than $\frac{E^2}{R}$ as we choose without doing any further harm than that we shall be using more material than economy of construction demands. For general purposes, however, we shall strive to make them equal.

To get the equation into practical form for our purpose we transpose it and find that $E^2 \times 2$ must equal r.s. × R. $E^2 \times 2$ is easily found. The value of r.s. and R can be taken from the table, which gives them in direct reading for a 1 inch spool. In the table there is but one value for resistance given and that is for a coil running quite cool. There are 3 values of r.s. for different thicknesses of insulation given. The double silk is the same generally as the single cotton and can be used for both. To find the resistance of a coil of any diameter and depth of winding, multiply the resistance given in the table by the mean diameter of the winding as A to B Figure 110. To find the radiating surface of the same coil multiply the diameter of the wire by the total diameter of the coil as from C to D in the figure. This is all we need to figure to begin with, because the radiating surface and resistance increase in the same ratio directly as the length, and as long as we do not change the proportion of the first section considered they will remain the same throughout any length of spool. If, however, we attempt to consider a different depth of winding we must again determine the resistance and the radiating surface, since we can see from the figure that the proportions of the two are constantly changing.

In the calculations of radiating surface we must neglect the ends. In general practice the length of the spool is made much greater than the depth of winding and as the ends therefore have very little effect upon the center they must be neglected entirely for it is the heating of the center that limits the watts to be used. If, as may in exceptional cases occur, the depth of winding is equal to the length of spool the radiating surface of the ends may be reckoned with.

In order to find what the resistance would have to be if we were to wind only this one section we divide $E^2 \times 2$ by the r.s. for the diameter we have just found. This will give us a resistance much greater than we have in those few turns and we must add more such sections until the product of r.s. $\times$ R becomes equal to $E^2 \times 2$. In order not to affect the ampere turns we must leave the mean diameter as we had it in the first place and consider only a lengthening of the winding space. As we lengthen the coil we also increase the radiating surface in the same ratio as we increase the resistance. We therefore increase the product of the two as the square of the length of the coil or the number of sections used. That is, the product of the radiating surface and the resistance for two such sections as we have been considering would be four times and for 3 nine times that of one.

Since the product of r.s. $\times$ R increases as the square of the length, in order to find the length of winding necessary, we extract the square root of $\frac{E^2 \times 2}{\text{r.s.}}$ which gives us directly the number of turns of wire in each layer of the coil. Since the table gives also the number of turns per inch we can from this get the length in inches of the winding space necessary to accommodate them. From the mean diameter of the winding we have assumed we can now determine the number of layers and thus the product of the two will give us the number of convolutions to be placed upon the spool. As most winding is done by machines which at the same time count the number of turns, this is in precisely the shape in which it is to be used.

As an example let us assume that we have a case in which it is decided that a number 20 wire will give us sufficient magnetizing force and we are now to find how much space we shall have to occupy so as to obtain sufficient radiating surface. The voltage to be used is 110 and the diameter of the spool 9 inches; $110^2 \times 2$ equals 24,200 and the product of R × r.s. should be equal to this. A number 20 wire, double cotton covered, will give us exactly 25 layers or turns per inch. As we have a spool of 9 inches in diameter and assume a depth of winding of 1 inch we shall have a mean diameter of the winding of $9+1$ inches; the resistance of the 25 layers will therefore be $10 \times 25 \times .0026$, the latter number being the resistance taken from the table. This gives us .66 as the resistance of a winding of the mean diameter of 10 inches and a width equal to the diameter of the wire which, we may say, forms one section of the winding. The radiating surface is computed from the outside diameter of the coil which is 11 inches, it is therefore 11 times that given in the table or 1.386. In order to get the product of the two we multiply 1.386 by .66 which gives us .9148; 24,200 divided by this is equal to 26,465. Now in order to get the proper proportions the product of r.s. × R must be made 26,465 times greater than it is for the section we have considered. Since, however, every additional section adds equally to the resistance and to the radiating surface the product of the two increases directly as the square of the length, or, in this case, as the square of the turns. In order therefore to find how many turns per layer we must provide we extract the square root of 26,465 which is 162.96 (see table for method of obtaining square root). As there are 25 wires per inch we require 162.96 divided by 25 or 6.52 inches in length for the winding space to give us the proper radiation.

Let us now check up and see what we have obtained. The total radiating surface of the coil is 11 × 6.52 × 3.14 which equals 225.2 square inches. The total resistance is 163 × .66 which equals 107.58. In order to find the watts we divide $E^2=12,100$ by this and obtain 112.5 watts; 225.2 divided by this gives very nearly 2 inches of radiating surface per watt expended.

Owing to the fact that the number of turns per inch is not always as accurately given as in this case other calculations may not come out as closely correct, but they will be close enough for all practical purposes.

The case of a coil to be wound for a fixed current becomes very simple by the use of Table IV. This table gives in the three columns at the right marked cool, warm, hot, the squares of the currents permissible under the different conditions of heating given. The watts in any circuit, it is well known, are equal to the square of the current, multiplied by the resistance. If we assume that the radiating surface does not change we must see that $I^2 \times R$ is always the same no matter how many layers deep we may wind; that is, two layers must consume no more energy than one. Since in two layers R is double that of one, I^2 must be only half that of one layer. In other words, the current must be so reduced that it, squared, will amount to only half the square of the current for one layer. To find this current for any number of layers we divide the square of the current for one layer by the number of layers and extract the square root. It can be seen that we can turn this process about and in order to obtain the size of wire for a given current we need only to square the current and multiply by the number of layers. Having done this we compare the number so found with the numbers in whichever of the three columns we desire to work under and find the number nearest equal to it. Opposite the number under B. & S. will be found the proper size of wire for the depth of winding and the current considered.

As has been stated before, this current is based upon the assumption that the radiating surface does not change with different depths of winding. This condition is approximately fulfilled when the diameter of the spool is very large compared to the size of wire and the number of layers considered. Theoretically, by this formula the watts remain always the same; hence by comparing the actual radiating surface of the finished coil of many layers by that of a coil of one layer we can form some idea of what the excess of radiating surface will be. It will always be greater in the proportion, as the diameter of the finished coil is greater than that of the diameter of the spool.

Example: We have a current of 7 amperes from which we desire to obtain 900 ampere turns. The diameter of the spool is 8 inches and the winding is to be selected from the column "warm."

In a case of this kind we have nothing to do with the voltage. This is taken care of by an increase of E. M. F., which must be made in proportion to the added resistance to keep the current at its normal value. The diameter of the core also interests us only in so far as it affects the radiating surface if there are many layers.

We begin the calculation by trying what one layer will do for us. To this end we square 7, which gives us 49. Following the column "warm" downward we come to 40 and 59. In order to be on the safe side let us try the larger wire, as this will give us less heating than will the smaller; 59 corresponds to a No. 17 wire, which gives us (double cotton covered) 19 turns per inch. As we need 900 divided by 7, or 129 turns, we should require a coil equal to 129 divided by 19=6.7 inches in length. Let us now try 5 layers deep. We now have 49 times 5, which equals 245. Tracing down the same column and keeping on the safe side we come to 325, which corresponds to a number 12 wire. As this is 5 layers deep we need only 26 turns in each layer to make up the 129 turns, and as there are 11 turns per inch we shall need only 2.4 inches for the length of winding space.

As the winding depth of 5 layers corresponds to ½ inch very closely, the total diameter of our coil is very nearly 9 inches and the total radiating surface is about $9 \times 3.14 \times 2.4 = 67.82$ square inches. The length of a mean layer is about 8.5 inches and the resistance given in the table .00042. The total resistance is therefore $8.5 \times .00042 \times 2.4 \times 11 \times 5 = .47$, which, multiplied by the square of the current, 49, gives us 23.03 as the number of watts.

We have here a radiating surface much greater than we required, first, because we took a wire larger than indicated, and, second, because the depth of winding increases the outside diameter of the coil considerable over that of the inner. If instead of the 12 we had taken a number 13 we should have a radiating surface of about 60.79 and the watts would be about 28.42. This is still a little larger than required and we may take it, as a general rule, that wherever any considerable depth of winding is considered we may safely take a wire one size smaller than indicated.

From consideration of the foregoing we may now establish the following rules and formulæ for the table:

1. To find the smallest wire from which the required ampere turns can be obtained. The resistance R of the wire as given in the table equals $\frac{E}{a.t. \times D}$

2. To find the number of layers multiply assumed depth of winding by the number of turns per inch of the wire in question.

3. To find the number of turns per layer to give required radiating surface n.t. $= \sqrt{\frac{E^2 \times a}{R \times l \times r.s \times D^1}}$

4. To find length in inches of coil divide result of formula 3 by number of turns per inch of wire in question.

5. To find total number of turns multiply result of formula 2 by that of 3.

FOR A FIXED CURRENT.

To find number of convolutions necessary divide number of ampere turns by the current.

To find smallest permissible wire for any depth of winding multiply the current to be used by itself and by the number of layers in depth of winding. Select the number nearest equal to this from one of the columns at the right of the table; opposite this number under B. & S. will be found the gauge number of the wire required. As a rule a wire one or two sizes smaller than indicated can be used.

SYMBOLS USED IN FORMULAS.

E = voltage.
a.t. = ampere turns.
D = mean diameter of winding.
R = resistance as given in table.
l = number of layers.
D^1 = total diameter of coil.
r.s. = radiating surface as given in table.
n.t. = number of turns per layer.
a = variable from 1 to 3 and equal to 2 for general purposes.

TYPES OF MAGNETS.

Figure 111 shows the commonest form of electromagnet in use. It is this type that is used for telegraph, telephone and all similar work where the armature is close to the poles and where action over an extended range is not necessary.

The windings for all types of magnets must be applied as illustrated in Figures 112 to 114. Figure 112 shows a view of the winding as it would appear to one looking at it from the end of the magnet. It will be noticed that it forms a spiral, half of which runs in opposition to the other.

Another way in which to familiarize oneself with the condition of the wires to insure the proper operation of a magnet when complete can be explained by reference to Figure 113. In order that all of the windings may tend to produce a circulation of the lines of force in the same general direction they must be applied to the two coils just as though they were all wound upon one coil and all in the same direction as in Figure 113.

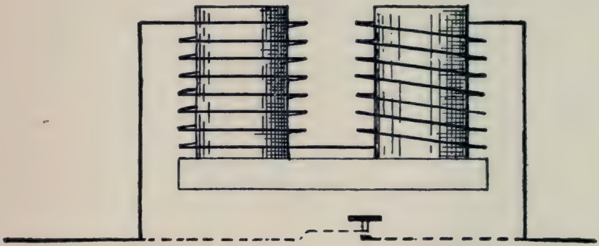


Figure 111.

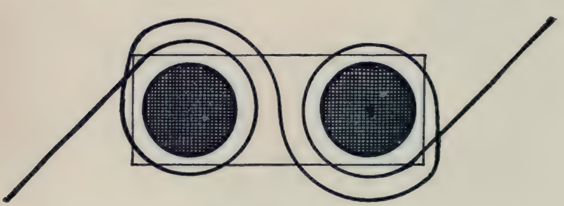


Figure 112.

If now the two coils illustrated in this figure are separated and set up on the yoke to form the coils of a complete magnet it will be seen that the windings will run as shown in Figure 114. Figure 114 has exactly the same wire on it as Figure 113 and is placed on in the same way, and consequently the lines of force produced will all be in the same general direction. The loop of wire at the bottom of magnet 2 is not neces-

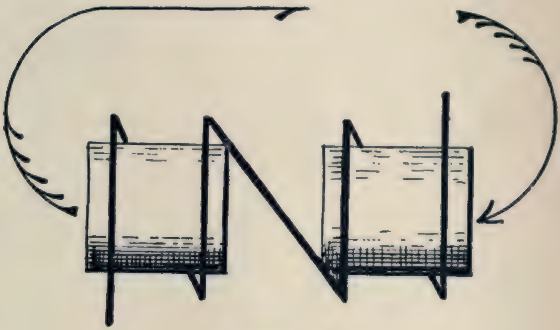


Figure 113.

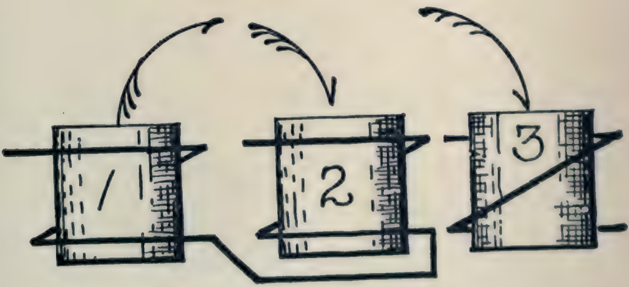


Figure 114.

sary; it is merely shown because it would come that way if Figure 113 were set up as is here shown. If magnet 1 were connected directly to the top of magnet 3 the result would be the same. It is also immaterial whether the winding runs to the right or to the left, or as shown in the figure, up or down, on the spool; the only point that must be observed is, the manner in which the current circulates around the magnet, which must always be as illustrated in Figure 112.

SPARKING.

In connection with all electro-magnets in which the current is often interrupted the sparking is a very important and troublesome item. To reduce damage from it to a minimum it is necessary to use platinum at all points where the break in the circuit occurs. Many schemes have been tried to lessen the troubles from this source, but we shall confine ourselves to dealing with the four most effective methods. The best method, where it can be applied, is that depicted in Figure 115. This is a differential magnet, provided with two coils wound in opposite direction, so that as long as current is flowing in both of them there is no magnetism. If now the current through one of the coils is interrupted the other coil remains alone in action and the magnetism appears as soon as the opposing magnetism disappears. With this winding when we break the circuit we destroy no lines of force, and consequently are not troubled with an induced E. M. F. and current which give us the spark. On the other hand, when we desire to destroy the magnetism we do so by closing an electric circuit and whatever induced currents there may be can circulate in the coils where they can do no harm.

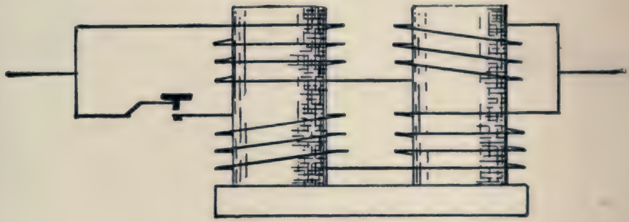


Figure 115.

The next method is that shown by the dotted lines in Figure 111. In this method instead of breaking the circuit of the magnet we shunt the current around it by closing the key. There is no spark when the magnetism is destroyed, but of course there is some sparking when the shunt circuit is opened and the current forced through the magnet.

Another method sometimes used consists in covering the core with a copper sheath before the winding is put on. When the current is interrupted the lines of force in the iron induce currents in the copper sheath, which in turn tend to keep up the magnetism, thus allowing it gradually to die out instead of being suddenly and totally destroyed.

Sometimes also a condenser is bridged across the break as shown in Figure 116. This takes up much of the current and lessens the sparking.

LIFTING MAGNET.

The general shape and arrangement of a lifting magnet is shown in Figure 117. For this purpose it is essential that the magnetic circuit be as good as possible and the pole pieces must be made to fit the pieces that are to be lifted as closely as possible. In any magnetic circuit of high efficiency anything that will introduce an airgap, ever so slight, will materially lessen the traction.

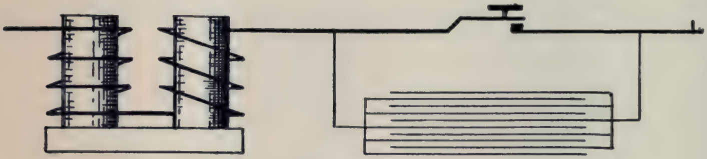


Figure 116.

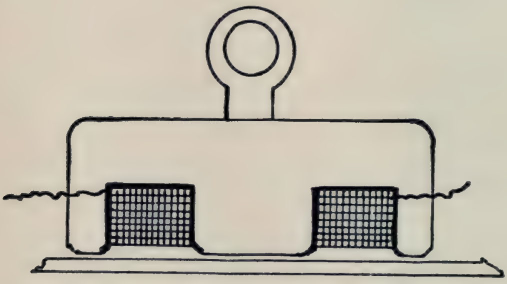


Figure 117.

It must be borne in mind that the traction or lifting power is in proportion to the square of the lines of force, and a little dirt the thickness of paper may in some cases result in a loss of half the lifting power of the magnet.

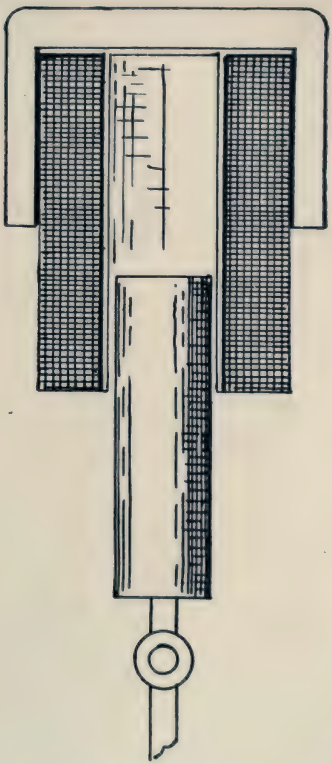


Figure 118.

MAGNETS FOR LONG RANGE OF ACTION.

Figures 118 to 120 show forms of magnets adapted for use where a considerable length of stroke is necessary. In such places the ordinary electro-magnet cannot be used because of the great airgap and the tendency of the lines of force to leak back instead of extending to the armature. In Figures 118 and 119 two solenoids are shown, one for a single plunger, and the other for a double. When current is turned on there is a strong suction, the magnetism tending, so to speak, to suck in the cores until they assume a position at which the magnetic circuit is as good as it can be with that particular coil and plunger. The general guiding principle which can be used here as well as in connection with all electro-magnets is that the lines of force tend always to draw the iron of the magnetic circuit into such a position that

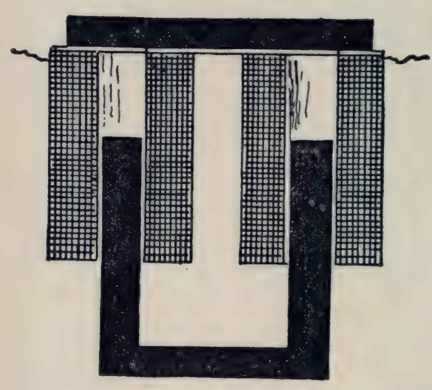


Figure 119.

it will accommodate the most of them, i. e., form the best possible path for them, and thus produce the greatest number.

MAGNET FOR QUICKEST ACTION.

For a magnet of this kind we must do just the opposite of what is essential in lifting and other power magnets. It is well known that every magnet possesses some inductance, and that this inductance is in proportion to the lines of force produced in it. If we have a magnet of very high efficiency we shall have very great inductance and consequently a very great retardation of the current. This will give us a slow acting magnet. If instead of this we employ a magnet of low efficiency we shall have a low inductance and consequently there will be little retardation. Of course the energy used up in this case will be large compared

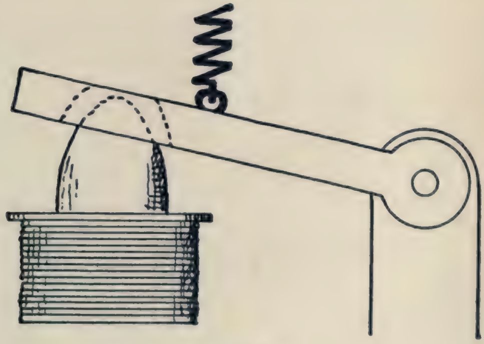


Figure 120.

to the results obtained. The case is analogous to that of a large and small ball striking a pin. The small ball requires little energy to move and imparts it all to the pin and comes to a stop when it strikes. This is a case of high efficiency, and the action is slow, for the ball must be brought in motion again. On the other hand, the large ball requires considerable energy to bring it into motion and when it finally strikes the pin the energy required to knock it over is so little compared to what is stored in it that the ball is not noticeably checked by it. In the same way a magnet so arranged that its counter E.M.F. or self-induction is equal to but a fraction of the total E.M.F. required in the circuit is the one best adapted for very quick work.

CHOKE OR RETARDATION COILS.

Coils for this purpose require a very good magnetic circuit. Other things being equal, the better the magnetic circuit the greater will be the reactance or choking effect.

MAGNET WINDING; PRACTICAL POINTS.

Before beginning the winding, the cores of all electromagnets should be well insulated. This is usually accomplished by placing one or more layers of paper around the iron core. If the magnet is to be subjected to high E.M.F.'s this insulating medium should be quite substantial and specially prepared. For ordinary purposes, however, almost any good paper will do. Layers of paper are also placed between the different layers of winding according to the needs of the case; for great potential differences, between each layer, and for smaller potentials, between every third or fourth layer. The paper between the layers also serves to keep the winding smooth and regular.

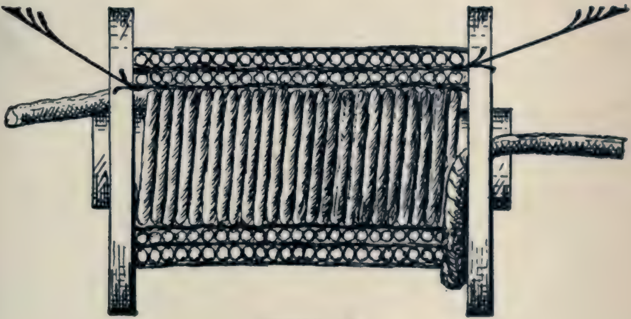


Figure 121.

The difference of potential which will exist between any two wires in contact can be readily seen by referring to Figure 121. With a coil wound uniformly from left to right and right to left the greatest difference of potential that can exist between any two wires is that between the two wires at the ends of the layers as shown by the arrows in the figure. The difference of potential which exists at these points can be determined by dividing the total difference of potential over the entire coil by the number of layers and multiplying by 2. As an example: If the voltage at the terminals of the three layers shown in Figure 121 is 100, the voltage between the two adjacent wires indicated by the arrows will be 66.6. The layers must, therefore, be insulated for this difference of potential.

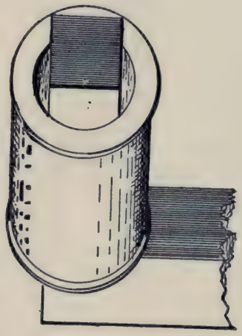


Figure 122.

As it is necessary to have laminated cores for alternating current magnets and as these cores are laminated as shown in Figure 122, the construction of a core of circular cross section would require numerous punchings of different shapes. For this reason and to make the cost of construction less, cores of square cross section are often used. The wires for this form of magnet are sometimes wound upon hollow spools of fiber and this afterward filled as full as possible by forcing as many of the punchings into it as it will hold.

The ordinary electro-magnet is wound in a machine similar to a lathe, the spool being centered and the wire guided into position by the hand of the operator. The device shown in Figure 123 is very useful in counting the number of turns. It is attached to the winding machine in such a manner that the spindle makes the same number of revolutions as the spool and the pointers on the dial revolve and indicate at any time the number of revolutions the spool has made. Other devices sometimes used automatically measure and record the length of wire wound on the spool.

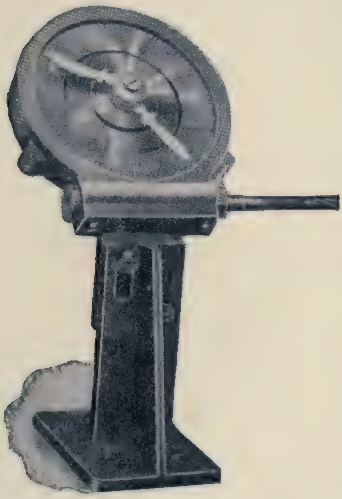


Figure 123.

Where magnets requiring a great number of turns, such as are to be used for high voltages, for instance, are to be wound, special winding machines are constructed. A mechanical guide is arranged to move the wire along the spool at the desired rate of speed so that the wire becomes properly spaced along the spool. This makes possible winding at a very high rate of speed and also allows of winding with bare wire, the wire being so spaced as to leave an air space between adjacent turns. Each layer of wire must be covered with a layer of paper to insulate the various layers. In the Varley winding bare wire is used, a layer of string or thread being wound on parallel with the wire, this serving to keep the adjacent wires separated. Sheets of insulat-

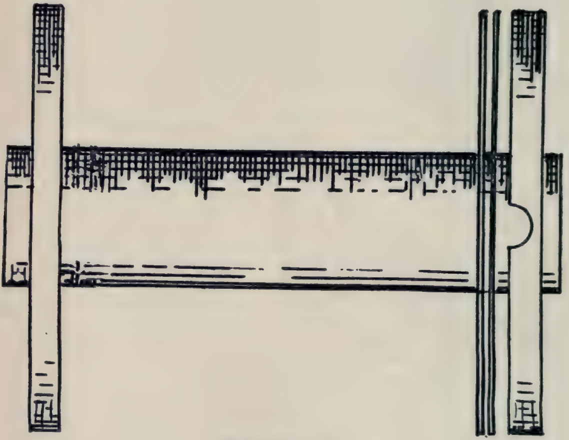


Figure 124.

ing material are placed between the adjacent layers and the wire thus becomes fully separated, although not in itself insulated.

Wire should always be applied to the core in such a manner as to avoid crossing wires, as would be the case if the wire from the bottom layer, Figure 121, was brought out inside the end pieces instead of passing through them. Another method of bringing out the wires from the lowest layer is shown in Figure 124. The two end washers are placed together and a hole drilled through them as shown in the figure. Other washers cut from cardboard or thin fiber are placed on the core between the two drilled washers. The wires leading from the inside layer are brought out through the drilled hole and the other washers then forced up against these wires, holding them in place. It is necessary, of course, in all cases to have the end washer either fit very tightly to the iron core or else to fasten it with shellac or cement.

When the magnet is wound with small wire it is well to solder a short length of stronger wire to the end of the winding and let this project from the end of the spool. The fine wires are very easily broken if, as is often the case, it is necessary to repeatedly disconnect them. If the wire from the inside layer breaks it may be necessary to entirely rewind the spool. Stranded wire, which is capable of considerable handling, is best to use for this end connection. Another method consists in doubling up the end of the wire with which the coil is wound several times. The ends of the turned-up loops are then cleaned of insulation and soldered to the wire which is to be wound on and the wires twisted together, thus forming a flexible connection. With this method it will be seen that there is no break in the wire, as the wire which is wound on is also brought out in the twisted group. This is shown in Figure 125.

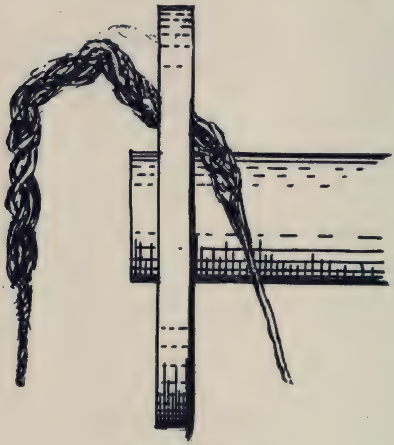


Figure 125.

Where it is necessary to make a joint in the wire with which a coil is being wound the ends should be twisted together and soldered. With fine wires a small piece of paper simply folded over the joint and held in place by the succeeding turns will provide all the insulation necessary, the ends of the wire at the joint being cut off close to the wire or otherwise disposed so that they will not cut through the paper covering. Special attention must be paid to the soldering and if the following points are observed satisfactory results will be obtained: The soldering iron should be clean and well tinned. To keep the iron in the proper condition it should be dipped in sal-ammoniac salts or a solution of sal-ammoniac and water just before the soldering is done. The sal-ammoniac destroys the oxide which gathers on the iron and thus allows the solder to entirely cover the copper. The iron should be hot; satisfactory work cannot be done with a cold iron. Great care should be exercised in the choice of a flux, as any flux containing an acid is bound to leave some of the acid on the wire after the soldering is done, and this acid, especially with small wires, is very apt to eat away the wire. If any doubt exists as to the flux used it is well to wash the joint with water after soldering. If the wires are tinned, a rosin flux should be used. This can do no harm even though some of the rosin is left on the wire.

Where large wires are used the ordinary Western Union joint cannot be used, as it would make too large an obstruction and could not be properly covered by the subsequent layers. A joint suitable for large wires is shown in Figure 126. A piece of copper is formed into a cylinder of sufficient size to cover the wire. This is then placed over the adjoining ends and the whole well soldered. The two ends of wire may be cut on a bevel and then wound with smaller wire and the whole soldered.

When, with differential windings, it is desired to have both windings have the same effect, they are wound on together, two wires at a time. It is well to take the wires for the same magnet from the same spool, as wires on different spools, even though marked the same size, often vary in diameter and resistance, while with the wire from one spool there is not liable to be much variation.

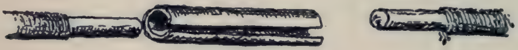


Figure 126.

A non-inductive winding, which is often used for resistance spool windings, consists of a double winding with one end of the winding closed. When it is desired to make a winding of this kind, enough wire is measured off to serve for the complete winding. This wire is then doubled together at the middle point and wound on the spool, the two wires being wound on at one time. It will be seen that when current is passed through the wire it will flow in opposite directions in the two wires lying side by side and no magnetism will result. This winding will therefore have no inductance, this point being especially advantageous in the case of resistance spool windings.

The insulation of the magnet winding is of importance and varies according to the purpose to which the magnet is to be put. If it is to be used in a dry place the insulating covering of the wire can be depended upon for proper insulation, while if the magnet is to be exposed to moisture special precautions must be taken to afford a good insulation. The covering of the wire and the paper used for separating the layers will both absorb moisture. Shellac is the common agent used for insulating purposes. Each layer of wire as it is wound on can be covered with shellac and the completed winding also covered. The coil should be thoroughly baked to drive out all moisture and to harden the shellac. The finished coils are sometimes submerged in a tank filled with insulating compound. When a very good insulation is desired the air is exhausted from the tank before the compound is let in, and after the coils are submerged, air pressure is applied to force the insulating compound into all the spaces between the windings.

German silver or iron wires are generally used for coils that are to be used for heating purposes. There are also special wires made to be used for this purpose which can be obtained from the various wire manufacturers. These wires are generally used bare, and for economy of space should be run close together. This can only be done by winding them upon a support that is very substantial and by winding the wires very tight. The metal of which the support consists should have as nearly as possible the same coefficient of expansion as the wire used. In order to effect the tight winding of the wire upon the support the winding is done in a lathe and the wire run through a number of tension wheels as indicated in Figure 127. Coils of this type are also formed by winding the wire tightly around an iron rod and then mounting them in suitable supports so that they are stretched out and adjacent turns somewhat separated.

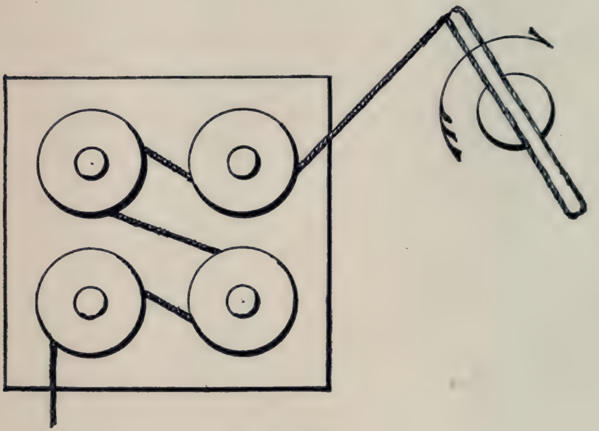


Figure 127.

The resistances of smaller wires as given in the tables furnished by the manufacturers vary considerably and it is not always safe to assume any given resistance in calculating the wire for a magnet. It is always more satisfactory to obtain a piece of the wire which it is intended to use and determine the exact resistance.

FACTS ABOUT ELECTRO-MAGNETS.

Heating.—The heat generated in the coils of a direct current electromagnet is proportional to the square of the current used.

It also varies directly as the square of the voltage and as the product of the current and voltage.

In alternating current magnets the heating is greater by an amount due to hysterisis and foucault currents.

The heating from hysterisis and foucault currents is furthermore much increased with an increase in the frequency.

Radiating Surface.—The radiating surface of coils must be taken as equal to the length times the circumference. The surface of the ends cannot be considered.

A radiating surface ranging from 1 to 3 square inches per watt of energy expended in the coils is necessary to limit the heating. The lower radiating surface is permissible only where the ventilation is extremely good or the current used only at intervals for a short time.

Magneto-Motive Force.—The magneto-motive force, or M.M.F., also known as "ampere turns," is equal to the product of the current and the number of turns of wire through which it passes around the coil.

Magnetic Reluctance.—This corresponds to resistance in the electric circuit and is similar in nature. It decreases as the cross-section of the core is increased and increases with the length. The reluctance of air is from 50 to 1,500 times greater than that of iron, the variation in the iron being due to the degree of saturation.

Sparking.—This is much greater where the M.M.F. is made up of a small current and a correspondingly large number of turns than it is with a large current and a small number of turns.

Inductance.—The inductance is also greater with many turns of wire than with a few. It also increases with an increase in the frequency and a betterment of the magnetic circuit.

Hysterisis.—This is one of the causes of the heating of the cores of alternating current magnets. It is lessened by selecting very soft annealed iron or steel. It is increased by imperfect iron or steel. It is further increased by an increase in the frequency of the reversal of current.

Foucault Currents.—Foucault currents are induced in the iron cores of alternating current magnets, and tend to heat it. They are prevented to a degree by laminated cores and their effect is greatly increased with an increase in the frequency.

Size of Wire.—A given number of ampere-turns (mean diameter of coil and voltage being fixed) can be obtained from a certain size of wire only.

The ampere-turns will remain the same no matter how many turns of the same size of wire are used so long as the voltage and the mean length of the turns are not changed.

To obtain an increase in the number of ampere-turns requires an increase in the diameter of the wire used.

To obtain the same number of ampere-turns with different mean diameters of winding, the cross-section of the wire must vary in the same proportion as the mean diameters of the coils.

Assuming that the insulation of all sizes of wire is in the same proportion to the diameter of the wire, the weight of copper in a coil of given dimensions is the same no matter what size of wire is used.

Energy Consumption.—From a certain size of wire we obtain a certain number of ampere-turns. We get the same effect from one turn as from thousands, but the greater the number of turns the lower will be the consumption of energy. Theoretically, magnetism can be produced without consumption of energy. In a given coil the consumption of energy will vary as the square of the voltage or as the square of the current used.

Resistance.—Neglecting the effect of the insulation upon the number of turns, the resistance of a coil of fixed dimensions will vary as the 4th power of the diameter of the wire.

The resistance of a coil of a given volume will also vary as the square of the number of turns.

It is often given as a rule for the winding of electromagnets that the resistance of the magnet or a number of them should be made equal to the resistance of the line and the battery. How far this is correct is illustrated in the following table. It will be seen that this rule is useful only in obtaining the maximum effect from a given battery and line, but does not take in the efficiency of operation at all. The table gives the results obtained from a given spool wound to the same volume with different sizes of wire.

Assumed voltage; 20 volts.
Resistance of line and battery 20 ohms.

B & S.	Resistance.	No of Turns.	Amperes.	Watts.	Amp Turns.	A. T. per Watt.
20	3.02	760	.87	17.4	661	38
22	7.22	1140	.73	14.6	832	57
24	17.04	1694	.54	10.8	915	85
26	39.6	2478	.33	6.6	818	124
28	90.0	3549	.18	3.6	639	177
30	182.4	4986	.10	2.0	499	249
32	440.9	6870	.043	.86	295	343
34	947.0	9272	.021	.42	194	462
36	1975	12160	.01	.20	122	608

Thickness of Insulation.—The average thickness of insulation for magnet wire is something like the following:

For armature winding an insulation consisting of one layer of cotton and one of silk is often used. The silk alone does not stay well on the sharp bends.

B & S Gauge.	Double cotton.	Single cotton.	Double silk.	Single silk.
20 to 40	8 mils.	4 mils.	4 mils.	2 mils.
10 to 20	10 mils.	5 mils.		
0 to 10	15 mils.	8 mils.		

CHAPTER XI.

USEFUL FORMULAS AND TABLES.

In the following formulas it is assumed that the wires lie squarely over one another in the coil, each wire fully occupying a space equal to the square of its diameter. As in most coils some insulating medium is placed between the different layers, this is about the condition which exists in practice.

The symbols used in the formulas are as follows:

d=diameter of wire, in inches, over insulation.

l=length of wire, on spool, in inches.

nt=number of turns.

r=resistance of one foot of wire.

rs=radiating surface.

B=diameter of core and insulation, in inches.

D=diameter over outside of completed winding, in inches.

L=length of winding space on spool, in inches.

N=depth of winding from core to outside, in inches.

W=weight of wire.

a, c, k=constants for use in the formula, given in the tables below. Each constant has a different value for each size and kind of wire used.

Number of turns in a given spool (see Figure 128):

$$nt = \frac{L \times N}{d^2}$$

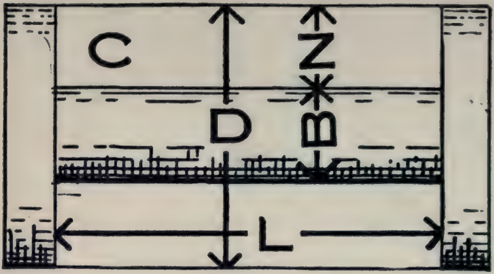


Figure 128.

Diameter of wire to give a certain number of turns:

$$d=\sqrt{\frac{L\times N}{nt}}$$

Cross-section of winding space, or L×N, necessary to accommodate a certain number of turns of a given wire:

$L\times N=d^2\times nt.$

Length of wire on a given spool:

$l=(D^2-B^2)L\times k.$ See table below for value of *k*.

Weight of wire on a given spool:

$W=(D^2-B^2)L\times c.$ See table below for value of *c*.

Resistance of wire on a given spool:

$R=(D^2-B^2)L\times a.$ See table below for value of ***a***.

Radiating surface for a given spool:

$rs=D\times 3.14\times L.$

TABLE OF CONSTANTS.

B. & S. Gauge.	k Constant for Length.			c Constant for Weight.			a Constant for Resistance.		
	Double Cotton	Single Cotton	Single Silk	Double Cotton	Single Cotton	Single Silk	Double Cotton	Single Cotton	Single Silk
20	40.9	50.4	56.7	.137	.162	.177	.415	.512	.576
21	50.4	64 1	72.7				.638	.812	.920
22	60.2	78.0	89.7				.97	1.257	1.445
23	68.3	89.7	104.7				1.387	1.82	2.08
24	83.6	113.5	135.	.1115	.149	.169	2.14	2.91	3.46
25	97.2	135.	163.				3.14	4.36	5.27
26	114.	163.	202.				4.65	6.65	8.24
27	135.	202.	255.				6.94	11.75	13.1
28	148.	226.	291.	.0845	.122	.148	9.60	14.62	18.82
29	182.	291.	387.				14.85	23.7	31.6
30	201.	334.	454.				20.7	34.4	46.8
31	226.	387.	542.				29.36	50.25	70.4
32	255.	454.	655.	.0687	.1045	.132	41.8	74.4	107.2
33	291.	542.	812.				60.33	114.5	168.
34	334.	655.	1023.				87.1	170.5	266.5
35	354.	712.	1140.				116.2	234.	374.8
36	387.	811.	1340.	.0492	.0825	.1115	160.	335.5	555.
37	422.	897.	1582.				220.5	468.	806.
38	457.	1023.	1825.				308.	674.	1192.
39	496.	1170.	2165.				412.	972.	1795.
40	532.	1300.	2525.	.038	.0615	.0888	557.	1360.	2645.

TABLES.

TABLES OF SQUARE ROOTS.

The tables of square roots given in this chapter will greatly facilitate calculations involving the squaring of numbers or the extraction of square roots. This becomes frequently necessary in armature and magnet calculations.

There are two tables, each covering two pages. One of these tables is to be used for numbers from .1 to 99.9, inclusive, and the other for numbers from 1 to 999.

The first one or two figures of every number between these limits is given in the first left-hand column. If there are three figures in the number the third one will be found at the head of one of the columns to the right. For instance, if the number of which we desire to find the square root is 233, we find 23 in the first column at the left and the remaining 3 in the column at the right headed "3." If the number of which we wish to find the square root consists of only two numbers, we find the first number in the column at the left and the remaining number in one of the columns at the right. For instance, if we have the number 36, we go down the first column to figure 3 and in line with this figure and under the column headed "6" we will find the square root.

The root of a whole number consists of a whole number and a decimal. The whole number is found under the column headed "0" and the decimal under one of the columns at the right. For instance, the square root of 233 is 15.26, the whole number (15) being found under the column headed "0" and the decimal (.26) under the column headed "3." The whole numbers in the column headed "0" hold for all the numbers following until a larger whole number is given. Wherever in any line the numbers are underlined these numbers belong to the next higher whole number. For instance, the square root of 259 is 16.09, the whole number (16) being found ahead of this number instead of the number following it.

Whenever the root of a number carried to more decimal points, or smaller than any number given in the table, is wanted, we may multiply this number by 100, find the root of this product and divide it by 10; the result will be the square root desired. Example: Find the square root of .475. Moving the decimal point two figures to the right, which effects the multiplication, we have 47.5. The square root of this is 6.89. Moving the decimal point one figure to the left, we have .689, which is the square root of .475.

In case multiplication by 100 does not bring the number within range of the tables, multiplication by any other number will do as well, provided that the subsequent division is made by the square root of the multiplier.

If the number is larger than any given in the table we reverse the process and divide by some convenient number and multiply by the root of that number.

SQUARE ROOTS 1. TO 999.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	0.00	1.00	1.41	1.73	2.00	2.24	2.45	2.65	2.83	3.00
1	3.16	32	46	61	74	87	00	12	24	36
2	4.47	58	69	80	90	00	10	20	29	39
3	5.48	57	66	74	83	92	00	08	16	25
4	6.32	40	48	56	63	71	78	86	93	00
5	7.07	14	21	28	35	42	48	55	62	68
6	75	81	87	94	00	06	12	19	25	31
7	8.37	43	49	54	60	66	72	78	83	89
8	94	00	06	11	16	22	27	33	38	43
9	9.49	54	59	64	70	75	80	85	90	95
10	10.00	05	10	15	20	25	30	34	39	44
11	48	54	58	63	67	72	77	82	86	91
12	95	00	05	09	14	18	23	27	31	36
13	11.40	45	49	53	58	62	66	70	75	79
14	83	87	92	96	00	04	08	12	17	21
15	12.25	29	33	37	41	45	49	53	57	61
16	65	69	73	77	81	85	88	92	96	00
17	13.04	08	11	15	19	23	27	30	34	38
18	42	45	49	53	56	60	64	67	71	75
19	78	82	86	89	93	96	00	04	07	11
20	14.14	18	21	25	28	32	35	39	42	46
21	49	53	56	59	63	66	70	73	76	80
22	83	87	90	93	97	00	03	07	10	13
23	15.16	20	23	26	29	33	36	39	43	46
24	49	52	56	59	62	65	68	72	75	78
25	81	84	87	91	94	97	00	03	06	09
26	16.12	16	18	22	25	28	31	34	37	40
27	43	46	49	52	55	58	61	64	67	70
28	73	76	79	82	85	88	91	94	97	00
29	17.03	06	09	12	15	18	20	23	26	29
30	32	35	38	41	44	46	49	52	55	58
31	61	64	66	69	72	75	78	80	83	86
32	89	92	94	97	00	03	06	08	11	14
33	18.16	19	22	25	28	30	33	36	38	41
34	44	47	49	52	55	57	60	63	65	68
35	71	74	76	79	81	84	87	89	92	95
36	97	00	03	05	08	11	13	16	18	21
37	19.24	26	29	31	34	36	39	42	44	47
38	49	52	54	57	60	62	65	67	70	72
39	75	77	80	82	85	87	90	92	95	98
40	20.00	03	05	07	10	12	15	17	20	22
41	25	27	30	32	35	37	40	42	45	47
42	49	52	54	57	59	62	64	66	69	71
43	74	76	78	81	83	86	88	90	93	95
44	98	00	02	05	07	09	12	14	17	19
45	21.21	24	26	28	31	33	35	38	40	42
46	45	47	49	52	54	56	59	61	63	66
47	68	70	73	75	77	79	82	84	86	89
48	91	93	95	98	00	02	05	07	10	11
49	22.14	16	18	20	23	25	27	29	32	34

SQUARE ROOTS 1. TO 999.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
50	22.36	38	40	43	45	47	50	52	54	56
51	58	61	63	65	67	69	72	74	76	78
52	80	83	85	87	89	91	93	96	98	00
53	23.02	04	07	09	11	13	15	17	19	22
54	24	26	28	30	32	35	37	39	41	43
55	45	47	49	52	54	56	58	60	62	64
56	66	69	71	73	75	77	79	81	83	85
57	87	90	92	94	96	98	00	02	04	06
58	24.08	10	12	15	17	19	21	23	25	27
59	29	31	33	35	37	39	41	43	45	47
60	50	51	54	56	58	60	62	64	66	68
61	70	72	74	76	78	80	82	84	86	88
62	90	92	94	96	98	00	02	04	06	08
63	25.10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28
64	30	32	34	36	38	40	42	44	46	48
65	50	51	53	55	57	59	61	63	65	67
66	69	71	73	75	77	79	81	83	85	87
67	89	90	92	94	96	98	00	02	04	06
68	26.08	10	12	13	15	17	19	21	23	25
69	27	29	31	32	34	36	38	40	42	44
70	46	48	50	51	53	55	57	59	61	63
71	65	66	68	70	72	74	76	78	80	81
72	83	85	87	89	91	93	94	96	98	00
73	27.02	04	06	07	09	11	13	15	17	18
74	20	22	24	26	28	29	31	33	35	37
75	39	40	42	44	46	48	50	51	53	55
76	57	59	60	62	64	66	68	69	71	73
77	75	77	78	80	82	84	86	87	89	91
78	93	95	96	98	00	02	04	05	07	09
79	28.10	13	14	16	18	20	21	23	25	27
80	28	30	32	34	35	37	39	41	43	44
81	46	48	50	51	53	55	57	58	60	62
82	64	65	67	69	71	72	74	76	78	79
83	81	83	84	86	88	90	91	93	95	97
84	98	00	02	03	05	07	09	10	12	14
85	29.15	17	19	21	22	24	26	27	29	31
86	33	34	36	38	39	41	43	44	46	48
87	50	51	53	55	57	58	60	61	63	65
88	66	68	70	72	73	75	77	78	80	82
89	83	85	87	88	90	92	93	95	97	98
90	30.00	02	03	05	07	08	10	12	13	15
91	17	18	20	22	23	25	27	28	30	32
92	33	35	36	38	40	41	43	45	47	48
93	50	51	53	55	56	58	59	61	63	64
94	66	68	69	71	72	74	76	77	79	81
95	82	84	85	87	89	90	92	94	95	97
96	99	00	02	03	05	06	08	10	11	13
97	31.14	16	18	19	21	23	24	26	27	29
98	31	32	34	35	37	38	40	42	43	45
99	47	48	50	51	53	54	56	58	59	61

SQUARE ROOTS .1 to 99.9

	.0	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7	.8	.9
0		.32	.45	.55	.63	.71	.77	.84	.89	.95
1	1.00	05	10	14	18	22	26	30	34	38
2	41	45	48	52	55	58	61	64	67	70
3	73	76	79	82	84	87	89	92	95	97
4	2.00	02	05	07	10	12	14	17	19	21
5	24	26	28	30	32	35	37	39	41	43
6	45	47	49	51	53	55	57	59	61	63
7	65	66	68	70	72	74	76	77	79	81
8	83	85	86	88	90	92	93	95	97	98
9	3.00	02	03	05	07	08	10	11	13	15
10	16	18	19	21	22	24	26	27	29	30
11	32	33	35	36	38	39	41	42	44	45
12	46	48	49	51	52	54	55	56	58	59
13	61	62	63	65	66	67	69	70	71	73
14	74	76	77	78	79	81	82	83	85	86
15	87	89	90	91	92	94	95	96	97	99
16	4.00	01	02	04	05	06	07	09	10	11
17	12	13	15	16	17	18	20	21	22	23
18	24	25	27	28	29	30	31	32	34	35
19	36	37	38	39	40	42	43	44	45	46
20	47	48	49	50	52	53	54	55	56	57
21	58	59	60	62	63	64	65	66	67	68
22	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	79
23	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89
24	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99
25	5.00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09
26	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
27	20	21	22	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38
29	39	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47
30	47	48	50	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
31	57	58	59	59	60	61	62	63	64	65
32	66	67	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74
33	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	80	81	82
34	83	84	85	86	87	87	88	89	90	91
35	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	97	98	99
36	6.00	01	02	02	03	04	05	06	07	07
37	08	09	10	11	12	12	13	14	15	16
38	16	17	18	19	20	20	21	22	23	24
39	25	25	26	27	28	28	29	30	31	32
40	32	33	34	35	36	36	37	38	39	40
41	40	41	42	43	43	44	45	46	47	47
42	48	49	50	50	51	52	53	53	54	55
43	56	57	57	58	59	60	60	61	62	63
44	63	64	65	66	66	67	68	69	69	70
45	71	72	72	73	74	75	75	76	77	78
46	78	79	80	80	81	82	83	83	84	85
47	86	86	87	88	88	89	90	91	91	92
48	93	94	94	95	96	96	97	98	99	99
49	7.00	01	01	02	03	04	04	05	06	06

SQUARE ROOTS .1 TO 99.9

	.0	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7	.8	.9
50	7.07	08	09	09	10	11	11	12	13	13
51	14	15	16	16	17	18	18	19	20	20
52	21	22	23	23	24	25	25	26	27	27
53	28	29	29	30	31	31	32	33	33	34
54	35	36	36	37	38	38	39	40	40	41
55	42	42	43	44	44	45	46	46	47	48
56	48	49	50	50	51	52	52	53	54	54
57	55	56	56	57	58	58	59	60	60	61
58	62	62	63	64	64	65	66	66	67	67
59	68	69	69	70	70	71	72	73	73	74
60	75	75	76	77	77	78	78	79	80	80
61	81	82	82	83	84	84	85	85	86	87
62	87	88	89	89	90	91	91	92	92	93
63	93	94	95	96	96	97	98	98	99	99
64	8.00	01	01	02	03	03	04	04	05	06
65	06	07	07	08	09	09	10	11	11	12
66	12	13	14	14	15	15	16	17	17	18
67	18	19	20	20	21	22	22	23	23	24
68	25	25	26	26	27	28	28	29	29	30
69	31	31	32	32	33	34	34	35	35	36
70	37	37	38	38	39	40	40	41	41	42
71	43	43	44	44	45	46	46	47	47	48
72	49	49	50	50	51	51	52	53	53	54
73	54	55	56	56	57	57	58	58	59	60
74	60	61	61	62	63	63	64	64	65	65
75	66	67	67	68	68	69	69	70	71	71
76	72	72	73	74	74	75	75	76	76	77
77	78	78	79	79	80	80	81	81	82	83
78	83	84	84	85	85	86	87	87	88	88
79	89	89	90	91	91	92	92	93	93	94
80	94	95	96	96	97	97	98	98	99	99
81	9.00	01	01	02	02	03	03	04	04	05
82	06	06	07	07	08	08	09	09	10	10
83	11	12	12	13	13	14	14	15	15	16
84	17	17	18	18	19	19	20	20	21	21
85	22	23	23	24	24	25	25	26	26	27
86	27	28	28	29	30	30	31	31	32	32
87	33	33	34	34	35	35	36	36	37	38
88	38	39	39	40	40	41	41	42	42	43
89	43	44	44	45	46	46	47	47	48	48
90	49	49	50	50	51	51	52	52	53	53
91	54	54	55	56	56	57	57	58	58	59
92	59	60	60	61	61	62	62	63	63	64
93	64	65	65	66	66	67	67	68	69	69
94	70	70	71	71	72	72	73	73	74	74
95	75	75	76	76	77	77	78	78	79	79
96	80	80	81	81	82	82	83	83	84	84
97	85	85	86	86	87	87	88	88	89	89
98	90	90	91	91	92	92	93	93	94	94
99	95	95	96	96	97	98	98	99	99	99

COPPER WIRE TABLE.

Giving Weights of Bare Wires at 68° F., for A. W. G. (Brown & Sharpe.)

A.W.G.	DIAMETER	AREA	WEIGHT	
B. & S.	Inches	Circular Mils.	Lbs. Per Foot	Lbs. Per Ohm
0000	.460	211,600.	.6405	13,090.
000	.4096	167,800.	.5080	8,232.
00	.3648	133,100.	.4028	5,177.
0	.3249	105,500.	.3195	3,256.
1	.2893	83,690.	.2533	2,048.
2	.2576	66,370.	.2009	1,288.
3	.2294	52,630.	.1593	810.0
4	.2043	41,740.	.1264	509.4
5	.1819	33,100.	.1002	320.4
6	.1620	26,250.	.07946	201.5
7	.1413	20,820.	.06302	126.7
8	.1285	16,510.	.04998	79.69
9	.1144	13,090.	.03963	50.12
10	.1019	10,380.	.03143	31.52
11	.09074	8,234.	.02493	19.82
12	.08081	6,530.	.01977	12.47
13	.07196	5,178.	.01568	7.840
14	.06408	4,107.	.01243	4.931
15	.05707	3,257.	.009858	3.101
16	.05082	2,583.	.007818	1.950
17	.04526	2,048.	.006200	1.226
18	.04030	1,624.	.004917	.7713
19	.03589	1,288.	.003899	.4851
20	.03196	1,022.	.003092	.3051
21	.02846	810.1	.002452	.1919
22	.02535	642.4	.001945	.1207
23	.02257	509.5	.001542	.07589
24	.02010	401.0	.001223	.04773
25	.01790	320.4	.0009699	.03002
26	.01594	254.1	.0007692	.01888
27	.0142	201.5	.0006100	.01187
28	.01264	159.8	.0004837	.007466
29	.01126	126.7	.0003836	.004696
30	.01003	100.5	.0003042	.002953
31	.008928	79.70	.0002413	.001857
32	.007950	63.21	.0001913	.001168
33	.007080	50.13	.0001517	.0007346
34	.006305	39.75	.0001203	.0004620
35	.005615	31.52	.00009543	.0002905
36	.0050	25.0	.00007568	.0001827
37	.004453	19.83	.00006001	.0001149
38	.003965	15.72	.00004759	.00007210
39	.003531	12.47	.00003774	.00004545
40	.003145	9.888	.00002993	.00002858

COPPER WIRE TABLE.

Giving Lengths, and Resistances of Bare Wire at 68° F., of Matthiessen's Standard Conductivity, for A. W. G.

(Brown & Sharpe.)

A. W. G.	LENGTH		RESISTANCE	
B. & S.	Feet Per Lb.	Feet Per Ohm	Ohms Per Lb.	Ohms Per Foot
0000	1.561	20,440.	.00007639	.0000489
000	1.969	16.210.	.0001215	.0000617
00	2.482	12,850.	.0001931	.0000778
0	3.130	10,190.	.0003071	.0000981
1	3.947	8,083.	.0004883	.0001237
2	4.977	6,410.	.0007765	.0001560
3	6.276	5,084.	.001235	.0001967
4	7.914	4,031.	.001963	.0002486
5	9.980	3,197.	.003122	.0003128
6	2.58	2,535.	.004963	.0003944
7	15.87	2,011.	.007892	.0004973
8	20.01	1,595.	.01255	.0006271
9	25.23	1,265.	.01995	.0007908
10	31.82	1,003.	.03173	.0009972
11	40.12	795.3	.05045	.001257
12	50.59	630.7	.08022	.001586
13	63.79	500.1	.1276	.001999
14	80.44	396.6	.2028	.002521
15	101.4	314.5	.3225	.003179
16	127.9	249.4	.5128	.004009
17	161.3	197.8	.8153	.005055
18	203.4	156.9	1.296	.006374
19	256.5	124.4	2.061	.008038
20	323.4	98.66	3.278	.01014
21	407.8	78.24	5.212	.01278
22	514.2	62.05	8.287	.01612
23	648.4	49.21	13.18	.02032
24	817.6	39.02	20.95	.02563
25	1,031.	30.95	33.32	.03231
26	1,300.	24.54	52.97	.04075
27	1,639.	19.46	84.23	.05138
28	2,067.	15.43	133.9	.06479
29	2,607.	12.24	213.0	.08170
30	3,287.	9.707	338.6	.1030
31	4.145.	7.698	538 4	.1299
32	5,227.	6.105	856.2	.1638
33	6,591.	4.841	1,361.	.2066
34	8.311.	3.839	2,165.	.2605
35	10,480.	3.045	3,441.	.3284
36	13,210.	2.414	5,473.	.4142
37	16,660.	1.915	8,702.	.5222
38	21,010.	1.519	13,870.	.6585
39	26,500.	1.204	22,000.	.8304
40	33,410.	0.9550	34,980.	1.047

TABLE FOR INSULATED COPPER WIRE. (Belden Manufacturing Co.)

B. & S. Gauge	Single Cotton, Total Insulation Thickness 4 Mils.		Double Cotton, Total Insulation Thickness 8 Mils.		Single Silk, Total Insulation Thickness 1 3-4 Mils.		Double Silk, Total Insulation Thickness 4 Mils.	
	Ohms per pound	Feet per pound	Ohms per pound	Feet per pound	Ohms per pound	Feet per pound	Ohms per pound	Feet per pound
20	3.15	311	3.02	298	3.24	319	3.18	312
21	4.99	389	4.72	370	5.12	403	5.03	389
22	7.88	488	7.44	461	8.15	503	7.96	493
23	12.44	612	11.7	584	12.92	636	12.65	631
24	19.55	762	18.25	745	20.50	800	19.95	779
25	30.8	957	28.45	903	32.50	1005	31.5	966
26	48.6	1192	44.3	1118	51.29	1265	49.7	1202
27	76.45	1488	68.8	1422	82.00	1590	78.3	1542
28	120.	1852	106.5	1759	129.00	1972	123.5	1917
29	188.5	2375	164.	2207	205.00	2570	194.	2485
30	294.6	2860	252.	2534	328.5	3145	306.5	2909
31	460.5	3800	384.5	2768	512.3	3943	477.	3683
32	716.	4375	585.	3737	810.0	4950	747.	4654
33	1117.	5390	880.	4697	1277.5	6180	1165.	5689
34	1720.	6580	1315.	6168	2018.	7740	1810.	7111
35	2642.	8050	1960.	6737	3175.	9680	2820.	8534
36	4060.	9820	2890.	7877	4970.	12000	4340.	10039
37	6190.	11860	4230.	9309	7940.	15000	6660.	10666
38	9440.	14300	6150.	10666	12320.	18660	10250.	14222
39	14420.	17130	8850.	11907	19200.	23150	15600.	16516
40	22600.	21590	12500.	14222	30200.	28700	23650.	21333

TABLE OF DIAMETERS (d) AND SQUARE OF DIAMETERS (d^2) FOR INSULATED COPPER WIRE.

B. & S.	Double Cotton		Single Cotton		Single Silk	
	d	d^2	d	d^2	d	d^2
20	.040	.0016	.036	.001296	.034	.001156
21	.036	.0013	.032	.00102	.030	.0009
22	.033	.00109	.029	.00084	.027	.00073
23	.031	.00096	.027	.00073	.025	.000625
24	.028	.000784	.024	.000576	.022	.000484
25	.026	.000675	.022	.000484	.020	.0004
26	.024	.000575	.020	.0004	.018	.000324
27	.022	.000484	.018	.000324	.016	.000256
28	.021	.000441	.017	.000289	.015	.000225
29	.019	.00036	.015	.000225	.013	.000169
30	.018	.000324	.014	.000196	.012	.000144
31	.017	.000289	.013	.000169	.011	.000121
32	.016	.000256	.012	.000144	.010	.000100
33	.015	.000225	.011	.000121	.009	.000081
34	.014	.000196	.010	.000100	.008	.000064
35	.0136	.000185	.0096	.000092	.0076	.0000576
36	.013	.000169	.009	.000081	.007	.000049
37	.0124	.000155	.00845	.000073	.00645	.0000415
38	.012	.000143	.008	.000064	.006	.0000362
39	.0115	.000132	.0075	.000056	.0055	.0000303
40	.0111	.000123	.0071	.0000504	.0051	.000026

CURRENT CARRYING CAPACITY OF 18 PER CENT GERMAN SILVER.

B. & S. Gauge	TEMPERATURE RISE BARE CONDUCTOR IN AIR					
	100° F	200° F	300° F	400° F	500° F	600° F
10	18.6 A	26.3 A	32.2 A	37. A	41.5 A	45.5 A
11	16.1	22.7	27.9	32.2	36.0	39.5
12	13.3	18.8	23.0	26.6	29.7	32.5
13	11.3	16.0	19.5	22.6	25.2	27.6
14	9.4	13.3	16.3	18.8	21.0	23.0
15	7.9	11.2	13.7	15.8	17.7	19.3
16	6.6	9.3	11.5	13.2	14.8	16.2
17	5.5	7.8	9.5	11.0	12.3	13.5
18	4.7	6.6	8.1	9.4	10.5	11.5
19	3.8	5.4	6.6	7.6	8.5	9.3
20	3.3	4.7	5.7	6.6	7.4	8.1
21	2.8	4.0	4.9	5.6	6.3	6.9
22	2.3	3.3	4.0	4.6	5.1	5.6
23	1.95	2.8	3.4	3.9	4.4	4.8
24	1.63	2.3	2.8	3.3	3.7	4.0
25	1.39	2.0	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.4
26	1.17	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.9
27	1.00	1.4	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.5
28	.83	1.9	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.0
29	.73	1.0	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8
30	.58	.82	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4
31	.49	.69	.85	.98	1.1	1.2
32	.41	.58	.71	.82	.92	1.0
33	.35	.50	.61	.70	.78	.86
34	.29	.41	.50	.58	.65	.71
35	.25	.35	.43	.49	.55	.60
36	.21	.29	.36	.41	.46	.50
37	.17	.25	.30	.35	.39	.43
38	.14	.20	.25	.29	.32	.35
39	.125	.18	.22	.25	.28	.31
40	.105	.15	.19	.21	.24	.26

For Iron multiply these values by 1.71.

For 30 per cent German Silver multiply these values by .8.

TABLE OF WIRE AND SHEET METAL GAUGES.

(The United States Standard Gauge—U. S. S.—has been legalized by Act of Congress as a standard for sheet and plate iron and steel.)

No.	B. & S.	U. S. Standard	Birmingham
0000	.46000	.40625	.454
000	.40964	.375	.425
00	.36480	.34375	.380
0	.32486	.3125	.340
1	.28930	.28125	.300
2	.25763	.26562	.284
3	.22942	.25	.259
4	.20431	.23437	.238
5	.18194	.21875	.220
6	.16202	.20312	.203
7	.14428	.1875	.180
8	.12849	.17187	.165
9	.11442	.15625	.148
10	.10190	.14062	.134
11	.09074	.125	.120
12	.08081	.10937	.109
13	.07196	.09375	.095
14	.06408	.07812	.083
15	.05707	.07013	.072
16	.05082	.0625	.065
17	.04526	.05625	.058
18	.04030	.05	.049
19	.03589	.04375	.042
20	.03196	.0375	.035
21	.02846	.03437	.032
22	.02535	.03125	.028
23	.02257	.02812	.025
24	.02010	.025	.022
25	.01790	.02187	.020
26	.01594	.01875	.018
27	.01420	.01718	.016
28	.01264	.01562	.014
29	.01126	.01406	.013
30	.01003	.0125	.012
31	.00893	.01094	.010
32	.00795	.01016	.009
33	.00708	.00937	.008
34	.00630	.00859	.007
35	.00561	.00781	.005
36	.005	.00703	.004
37	.00445	.00664	
38	.00396	.00625	
39	.00353		
40	.00314		

TABLE SHOWING THE CURRENTS WHICH WILL FUSE WIRES OF DIFFERENT SUBSTANCES.

B. & S. Gauge.	Copper.	German Silver.	Iron.
10	333.	170.	102.3
11	284.	146.	86.
12	236.	120.5	72.6
13	200.0	102.6	63.
14	165.7	84.6	50.9
15	129.	71.2	42.1
16	117.7	60.1	36.1
17	99.	50.4	32.6
18	81.9	41.8	25.2
19	66.7	34.2	20.2
20	58.5	29.9	18.
21	49.3	25.3	14.9
22	41.1	21.	12.4
23	34.5	17.7	10.9
24	28.9	14.8	8.9
25	24.6	12.6	7.46
26	20.7	10.6	6.4
27	17.7	9.1	5.36
28	14.5	7.4	4.5
29	12.5	6.41	3.79
30	10.2	5.2	3.1
31	8.75	4.49	2.65
32	7.3	3.7	2.3
33	6.19	3.18	1.88
34	5.1	2.6	1.6
35	4.37	2.24	1.33
36	3.6	1.8	1.1
37	3.08	1.56	.93
38	2.52	1.30	.76
39	2.20	1.11	.67
40	1.84	.95	.55

The above table is calculated from the well known formula due to W. H. Preece, F. R. S.

PART II

STORAGE BATTERIES

INTRODUCTION

An electro-chemical generator, or electric cell as it is usually called, is a device for the conversion of the potential energy of chemical separation into the energy of an electric current.

If a plate of zinc be immersed in dilute sulphuric acid, chemical action occurs, the zinc is dissolved, forming sulphate of zinc, which remains in solution, and hydrogen is liberated and escapes. This is a case of simple chemical action, and the energy given out appears principally in the form of heat. If the displacement of the hydrogen by the zinc occurs under somewhat less simple conditions, a greater part of the energy developed may be made to appear in the form of an electric current. Thus, if a plate of zinc and one of copper be placed in dilute acid, care being taken that those parts immersed in the solution do not touch, and if the outer ends be joined by an electric conductor, it will be found that an electric current is developed which appears to flow from the copper to the zinc plate. Such an arrangement constitutes a simple voltaic cell.

Voltaic electric cells may be divided into two distinct types—viz. Primary and Secondary. In a primary cell the electrical energy is developed by the direct chemical decomposition of the excitant or electrolyte, and of one or both of its elements, the magnitude and rate of such electrical development being chiefly dependent upon the chemical activity of the materials employed. A secondary, storage, or accumulator cell is the name given to that particular class of apparatus which, although quite inert in itself, yet, on the passage of an electric current through it, certain chemical changes are induced which render it capable of receiving, retaining, and redeveloping a certain amount of electrical energy, the ratio between that amount of energy put in and returned being dependent upon the chemical nature of the materials employed and the mechanical construction of the cell.

In spite of our lack of knowledge of the precise nature of the chemical changes which occur in lead sulphuric-acid cells, enough is now known to enable those concerned in their commercial manufacture to construct cells of any capacity, and capable of giving any rate of discharge. It is now usual to speak of storage cells as being of so many ampere-hours capacity per pound of plates, or per pound of complete cell.

Storage Batteries

Lead storage cells fall naturally into two classes—viz. those in which the active material is formed from the substance of the element itself either by direct chemical or electro-chemical action, and those in which the chemical formation is accelerated by the application of some easily-reducible compound of lead. Elements of the former type are usually called "Planté," and those of the latter "Faure" or "pasted," Messrs. Planté and Faure being the respective inventors. This arrangement, however, does not hold so good now as formerly, the two types having in a measure blended. Quite a number of storage cells have recently been introduced in which neither lead nor salts of lead is used in their construction. Under these circumstances it will, perhaps, be advisable to divide the subject into two sections. First, what are generally known as "stationary cells," or cells commonly used for storing electrical energy in central supply stations, for tramway work, and for ordinary electric lighting. Second, "semi-portable" and "portable cells," or those used for propelling electric launches, tram-cars, motor-cars, and similar electrically-driven vehicles, also still smaller types of cells now commonly used for actuating induction coils, for X-ray, and wireless telegraphic work, and also for driving very small motor and electric hand-lamps.

STATIONARY CELLS

As previously stated, the exact nature of the chemical changes in a secondary lead-sulphuric-acid lead-peroxide cell is not yet established; but it has been conclusively shown by Dr. Gladstone and Prof. Tribe that sulphate of lead ($Pb\,SO_4$) enters largely into the composition of the active material on both elements in a discharged cell. Analysis has shown that the surfaces of the elements in a newly and fully-charged Planté cell consist of nearly pure peroxide of lead ($Pb\,O_2$) and spongy metallic lead (Pb) respectively on the positive and negative plates.

During the discharge, or if the cell be allowed to remain at rest, the sulphuric acid (H_2SO_4) in the solution enters into combination with the peroxide and spongy lead, and partially converts it into sulphate. The acid being continually abstracted from the electrolyte as the discharge proceeds, the density of the solution becomes less. In the charging operation this action is reversed, as the reducible sulphates of lead which have been formed are apparently decomposed, the acid being reinstated in the liquid, and therefore causing an increase in its density. This peculiar alteration in the nature of the acid solution, first noticed by Sir E. Frankland, enables us to ascertain at any moment both the state of charge and the general condition of a cell, by simply finding its density or specific gravity by means of a suitable instrument.

It is well known that pure metallic zinc will not decompose water, even at such a high temperature as 100° Centigrade. Dr. Gladstone and Prof. Tribe, in their admirable researches on this subject, have shown that zinc, on which copper has been deposited in a spongy condition, was capable of splitting up the molecules of water, even at ordinary temperatures, oxide of zinc being formed and hydrogen liberated. If placed in a solution of sulphuric acid and water it started a very violent chemical action, sulphate of zinc and hydrogen being the result. They termed the two metals thus conjoined a *copper-zinc couple,* and they found that this agent was capable of bringing about other chemical changes which neither metal alone could effect. Users of primary batteries, and those conversant with electrolytic action, will at once understand the nature of this agent, and will readily recognize in its effects only an intensified form of that troublesome complaint with which we are so familiar, and which is usually known by electricians under the name of "local action."

In the Planté form of secondary cell the positive plate is a sheet of lead, upon which finely-divided peroxide of lead is distributed. The difference of potential developed by lead and lead peroxide when immersed in dilute sulphuric acid is as nearly as may be 2 volts, while that developed by zinc and copper in the same liquid is about 0.7 of a volt. Messrs. Gladstone and Tribe were induced to think that the elements in a Planté cell acted very much in the same way as their copper-zinc couple, and by a series of experiments it was found to be so. They found that the lead-peroxide couple decomposed the sulphuric acid with the production of sulphate of lead. The destruction of the peroxide of lead by this action means so much diminution of the available amount of electrical energy. In the early stages of "formation," and when the peroxide of lead on the metal is very thin and small in quantity, its transformation into the white sulphate goes on very rapidly, and is frequently perceptible to the eye; but when the thickness of the coating is increased the time required for the conversion is naturally too long for this kind of observation. During each period of repose which is recommended by Planté the peroxide on the lead plate is completely, or almost completely, destroyed by local action, with the formation of a proportionate amount of lead sulphate. In the next stage, when the current is reversed, the lead sulphate is reduced by the nascent hydrogen which is liberated by the electrolytic action, and the amount of finely-divided lead capable of being peroxidized is largely increased.

From their observations it becomes evident that a lead-peroxide plate gradually loses its electrical energy by local action, the rate of such loss being varied according to the circumstances of its preparation, and the general condition of the cell. When elements are employed which have an extensive metallic surface, with but a thin coating of peroxide, the relative amount of local action must necessarily be large in proportion to the amount of active material present, and therefore the cell will quickly lose its charge.

De Kabath Accumulator.—Many early experimenters with the Planté type of element devoted much attention to methods of obtaining the maximum amount of active surface with a minimum amount of weight of lead. Among the earliest of these was M. de Kabath. His form of element consisted of a thin perforated-lead chamber filled with a large number of lead strips.

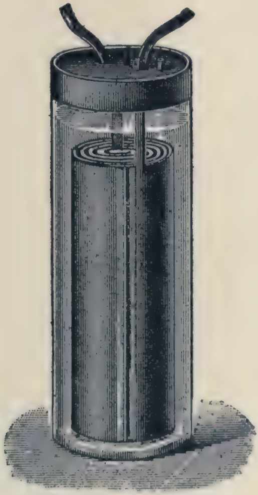


FIG. 1—PLANTE CELL

To still further increase the exposed surface, and to allow of a more thorough circulation of the solution, each alternate strip was fluted or crimped. The commercial pattern was prepared as follows:—

A number of thin lead strips, .39″ wide, 19.7″ long, and 1/25″ thick, were passed between fluted rollers which were grooved in such a way that their length was reduced to 14″. Lengths of the same thickness of lead were prepared. A perforated chamber, 3.4″ wide, was then made, and into this receptacle were packed about 180 or 190 of these strips, alternately one grooved and one plain. A perforated lead cover soldered on them completes the element. The complete plate measured 15″ in length, 3.54″ in width, and about .4″ in thickness. Twelve of these elements were placed in one cell. The formation was effected slowly, and in such a manner that the peroxide may adhere as firmly as possible. The process was maintained for some days, the direction of the current being occasionally reversed. The electrolyte was composed of distilled water to which was added one-tenth, by bulk, of pure sulphuric acid.

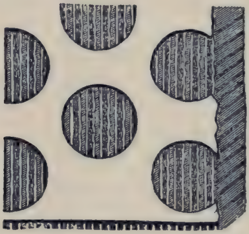


FIG. 2.—KABATH'S PLATE

With a view to finding out the amount of surface to be obtained by rolling a given weight of lead, De Kabath found by actual trial that 2.2 lbs. of lead rolled out 1/25″ thick exposed an active surface of 279 square inches.

Reynier's Cell.—The late Emile Reynier made many attempts to improve on the Planté cell. One of these consisted of a thin sheet of lead folded up zigzag fashion, and then enclosed in a stout cast-lead frame. During its formation the interior portions of the positive plate increased considerably in dimensions, but meeting with opposition from the rigid sides it did not warp up or bend,

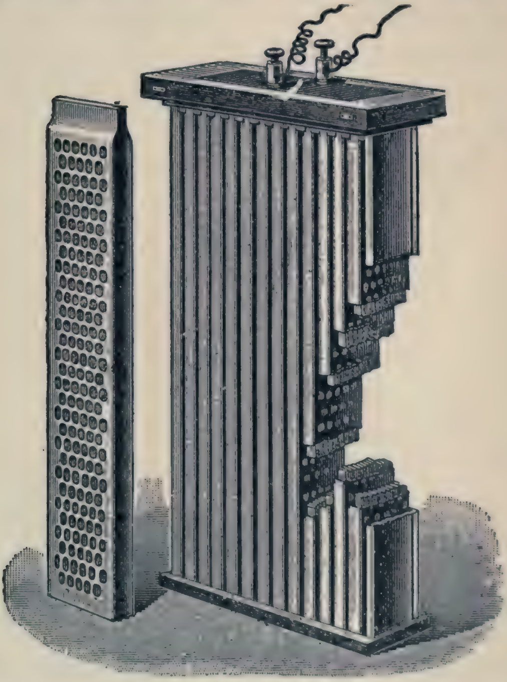


FIG. 3.—KABATH'S ELEMENT

but merely tended to close in upon itself. To decrease weight, and to still retain its mechanical strength, he ultimately substituted light steel frames which he coated with lead or some lead alloy. A still further improved form was what Reynier called his "elastic" cell. In constructing this he separated his electrodes by means of thin porous sheets of silica. Each cell contained one positive and two negative plates, and four sheets of the prepared silica. The two outer sheets of the insulator were corrugated so as to increase the space available for the electrolyte.

As an illustration of the capabilities of this form of cell, the following particulars of a 15-cell battery were given by Reynier:—

Total electromotive force, 32 volts.
Electromotive force at terminals, 28 volts.
Safe rate of discharge, 3 to 6 amperes.
Average available energy, 150 watts.
Capacity, 30 ampere-hours.
Work (available), 740 watt-hours.
Total weight of battery, 110 pounds.

D. P. Cells.—In this form of cell, known as the D. P. Accumulator the elements consist of a large number of narrow strips of lead built up one above another. Sometimes the narrow lead strips are obliquely corrugated to prevent the surfaces coming into contact. The plates are formed by the Dujardin process, which consists in immersing them in a solution composed of 2.2 lbs. of an alkaline nitrate, 4.4 lbs. of sulphuric acid, and 220 lbs. of water.

To regenerate the deoxidized nitric acid, air is forced into the bath during the forming operation.

The Rooney High-Discharge Cell, which is an American production, is very similar to the D. P. as regards mechanical construction. In this cell corrugated strips of lead are alternated with straight strips. These strips are lead-burned to a strong lead conductor, the whole being connected to a lead frame.

The positive elements are enclosed in a perforated hard rubber, or celluloid chamber. The forming process is accomplished in a nitrate solution.

The "Blot" Accumulator.—The Blot elements somewhat resemble those of the D. P. and Rooney make. Each element is made up of longitudinal coils of lead strip. The coils consist of alternately embossed and corrugated strips, so that the electrolytic is free to reach the whole of the lead surfaces. The thickness of the strips and the length of the coils is regulated according to the desired capacity of the finished cell. The coils are disposed vertically, their top end being burned to a stout lead conductor. By this arrangement the various sections of the plate are free to expand, so that warping and buckling are said not to occur.

The Lamina Plate.—These elements are made up of a series of perforated and corrugated lead strips. The method of making these plates is somewhat as follows:—Lead is received in the form of rolls of 8 to 10 inches wide, and of varying thickness of from 1/64 to 1/32 inch. The lead is first perforated, and is afterwards corrugated by a suitable machine. After being treated in this way the lead is cut up into strips of the desired size. These strips when built up are encased by a sheet of perforated lead, held in position by leaden rivets, and lead-burned at the top and bottom.

The "Tudor" Accumulators.—The positive plates in this cell, which are perhaps its most distinctive feature, are lead plates of large surface, and formed on the original Planté method. The positive plates of all the different types made are similar in construction, and only differ in their dimensions. The plates are cast in one piece with a large number of thin vertical ribs strengthened at intervals by horizontal ribs. The moulds in which the plates are cast are in two halves, each corresponding to one side of

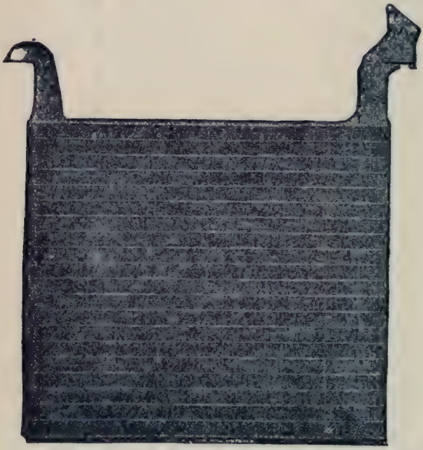


FIG. 4.—TUDOR POSITIVE PLATE

the plate, and consisting of a rectangular cast-iron frame, in which are held a number of gun-metal racks, .6″ wide, cut with very fine teeth. A very small space is left between each rack, corresponding to a horizontal rib on the plate; at intervals of about 4.8″ a tooth is cut away on each rack so as to give an extra strong vertical rib at those points.

The thickness of the positive plates in all types of the Tudor cell is the same, viz. ½ inch, and the developed surface for electrolytic formation is ten times that of a smooth plate of the same superficial area.

The desired thickness of peroxide of lead on the positive plate is produced first by alternately charging the cells and then leaving them at rest on open circuit, and afterwards by alternately charging them at frequent intervals throughout the day, the discharge becoming greater as the state of formation proceeds. Finally, the cells are charged and discharged under ordinary conditions, until they attain nearly the normal capacity.

The negative plates are of the pasted grid pattern, and after being filled and dried, the majority of negative plates are sent out without any further preparation. It has been found that the active material of the negative plates, when formed, oxidizes and sulphates so readily, that the time required for reducing them after erection is scarcely lessened by a previous reduction of the litharge at the works.

The method of mounting the Tudor cell is the same in principle for all types of cells made. The plates are suspended above the level of the liquid by their lugs, from the sides of the containing-box when it is made of glass, or from glass sheet when lead-lined wood boxes are used. In the small cells a free space of 4 inches, and in the large 8 inches, is left beneath the plates for the accumulation of deposit, so that this deposit cannot form internal short circuits. The plates are free to expand in all directions. Each pair of plates is separated by two or more glass-flanged tubes ½ inch in diameter, held upright by guiding pieces cast on the lugs of the negative plates.

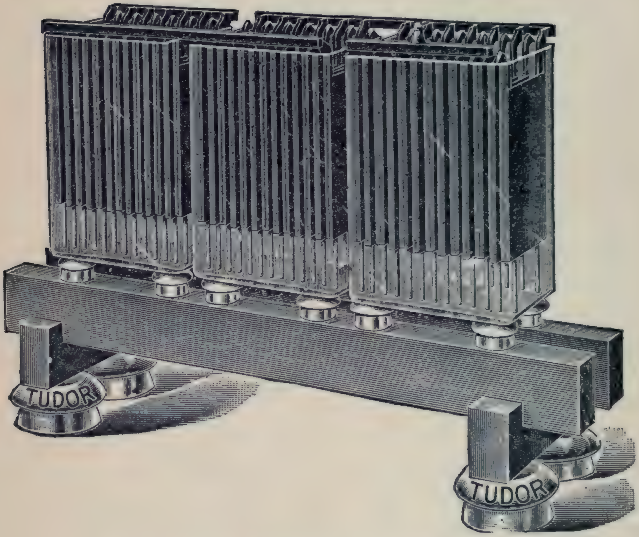


FIG. 5.—TUDOR ELEMENTS IN GLASS BOXES

The plates are lead-burnt on to the connecting bars, as shown in Fig. 5, which illustrates some of the ordinary lighting cells mounted in glass boxes. In the larger cells the connecting bars are common to the positive pole of one cell and the negative pole of the next one.

Faure, appreciating the many inconveniences and great loss of time involved in producing plates by Planté's electrolytic method, conceived the idea of accelerating the formation by applying a layer of oxide of lead to the surface of lead plates, and then converting this oxide into active material by the action of an electric current. To this end he coated his plates with minium or ordinary red oxide of lead, made into an adherent paste by the addition of water or acidulated water. When sufficiently hardened, these plates were placed in a cell containing dilute sulphuric acid, and then subjected to electrolytic action. To prevent the salts falling away from their support, he interposed between the plates porous felt or cloth. Faure found that the oxide on the positive plate was converted largely into peroxide of lead, while the salt on the negative was reduced to chemically porous lead.

The following data of one of these cells will doubtless be of interest: The cell was made up of sixteen flat plates of lead 17 inches long by 12½ inches wide. The positive electrodes were .08″ thick and the negatives .04″. The total amount of lead oxide pasted upon the plates weighed about 50 lbs. To prevent disintegration of the oxide, the plates were covered up first with parchment paper, and then with stout felt. The total weight of this combination, including the containing cell, was about 135 lbs. According to some tests made with this cell, the following results were obtained:—

Duration of Discharge	Rate of Discharge	Total Current Output
8 hours	22 amperes	176 ampere-hours
12 hours	21 amperes	250 ampere-hours
13 hours	20 amperes	280 ampere-hours
14 hours	19 amperes	299 ampere-hours

This type of cell is known as the Faure "pasted" cell, but owing to defects which speedily developed themselves, it has never come into commercial use to any great extent.

The Faure Cell Theoretically Considered.—It is not within the province of this article to consider to any great extent the chemical actions involved in the various forms of cells under consideration; but it may help us somewhat if at this junction we briefly consider the nature of the chemical changes which are believed to occur in such cells. As previously stated, much has been written on this subject, especially in recent years, but so far no very definite or satisfactory conclusions have been arrived at. As the practical experience gained during the last fifteen or sixteen years rather tends to confirm broadly the deductions of Dr. Gladstone and Professor Tribe with reference to the behaviour of electric storage cells, it will be of interest to give some extracts from their early and extremely lucid communications made to *Nature* concerning their investigations on these cells.

As the result of many experiments, these investigators arrived at the conclusion that the minium or red oxide of lead in a Faure cell suffers decomposition according to the formula $Pb_3O_4 + 2H_2SO_4 = PbO_2 + 2PbSO_4 + 2H_2O$. As both the lead sulphate ($PbSO_4$) and the lead peroxide (PbO_2) are insoluble in dilute sulphuric acid, these changes take place merely at the surface, and require time to penetrate into the interior.

In a Faure battery a plate consists of a superficial layer of mixed peroxide and sulphate of lead; the thickness of this layer is dependent upon the time during which the sulphuric acid has been allowed to soak into the oxide of lead. The proper formation of a secondary battery is a matter evidently depending upon very careful adjustment of conditions.

In a lead accumulator the energy stored up in the cell is determined mainly by the amount of peroxide of lead present. This appears to be obtained with the smallest amount of loss when the current is not too strong.

There would seem to be no commensurate advantage in continuing the current after the oxygen has ceased to be absorbed pretty freely, because the presence of some unoxidized sulphate of lead, although it increases the resistance rather impedes than promotes local action. On the other hand, however, it is necessary that the reduction of the minium on the opposing plate should be complete, because a mixture of lead peroxide and metallic lead would be peculiarly conductive to the production of lead sulphate, and thus increase the resistance; while if any peroxide should escape destruction, it would diminish the electromotive force of the cell. From the foregoing it would appear probable, that the most economical arrangement would be obtained by making the minium to be hydrogenated much smaller in amount than that to be oxidized. On trying the experiment with only half the quantity they obtained a most satisfactory result, as far as the charging was concerned. The lead peroxide was found to react both on the lead plate that supports it and on the lead on the opposite plate. This action, however, is no drawback, as, if it were not for the formation of a film of sulphate of lead on the surfaces of both plates, this action would quickly cause the cell to lose its charge; but the formation of sulphate no doubt also forms a serious obstacle to further local action.

Messrs. Gladstone and Tribe found that the initial electromotive force of the Faure cell, when freshly prepared, averaged 2.25 volts; but after being allowed to rest for some little time, it was reduced to about 2 volts.

During a discharge, oxide of lead in the presence of sulphuric acid becomes sulphate of lead, according to the equation—

$$PbO + H_2SO_4 = PbSO_4 + H_2O.$$

To prove that the sulphate of lead formed on the discharge is reduced in the subsequent charging, the lead plate of a fully-discharged cell, which was found to have

51 per cent of lead sulphate combined with the spongy lead, was subjected to a charging current of 1 ampere for a period of sixty hours, and on examination no trace of sulphate of lead was found. From this it may be concluded that during the alternate discharging and recharging of a Planté or Faure cell, sulphate of lead is alternately formed and reduced on the lead plate, and that the plate itself is not seriously corroded. It would, however, appear desirable not to allow the whole of the spongy lead to be reduced to the condition of sulphate during the discharge, for two reasons—viz. first, because the supporting plate stands a chance of itself being acted upon, and thereby weakened, if there is not a sufficient excess of spongy lead; and second, because the presence of this excess tends to facilitate the reduction of the sulphate.

It has already been shown that sulphate of lead is produced by the local action that occurs during repose between the peroxide and its metallic supporting plate. The same local action also takes place during the charging of the elements, this sulphate in its turn being attacked by the electrolytic oxygen. In this way the absorption of oxygen during the forming of the peroxide plate ought never to come to an end. It has been shown that .55 cubic inches of oxygen liberated will form and oxidize 3.7 grs. (troy) of sulphate of lead.

Referring to Planté's statement that an elevation of temperature facilitates the formation of his cell, Messrs. Gladstone and Tribe found that the character of the chemical changes which take place at the negative plate led them to think it exceedingly probable that this increase in the rate of formation arose from an augmentation in the amount of local action. By experiment such was shown to be the case. Pairs of similar peroxide plates made on Planté's model were allowed to remain idle at 11° C. and 50° C. respectively, and the formation of the white sulphate was visibly more rapid at the higher than at the lower temperatures. The same was found to be true with negative plates prepared by Faure's process. Two plates of similar polarity were kept in repose for an hour, the one at 11° C. and the other at 50° C. On analysis it was found that respectively 2.6 and 7.4 per cent of lead sulphate had been formed. On two other plates the proportions were 7.6 and 9.5 per cent respectively. These observations, of course, do not by any means exclude the idea that an increase of temperature may also facilitate the other chemical changes that occur in the formation of lead-lead peroxide cells.

From the results obtained from their investigations, Dr. Gladstone and Prof. Tribe were led to the following deductions, viz.:—

1. In the Planté or Faure cells local action necessarily takes place on the peroxide plate, with the production of sulphate of lead.

2. The formation of this sulphate of lead is absolutely requisite in order that the charge should be retained for a sufficient time to be practically available.

3. The rapidity of loss during repose will depend upon the closeness of the sulphate of lead, and possibly upon other mechanical conditions.

From the foregoing it may be thought that the chemical action of storage cells is well understood and easily ascertained. Such, however, is not the case. The reactions involved are highly complicated, and vary considerably under various conditions incidental to charging and discharging, rates of charge and discharge, variations of temperature, and methods of manufacturing the active material, also the density and composition of the electrolyte. In fact, Sir Edward Frankland correctly puts the case when he stated that "the physical qualities of the cells are capable of very accurate estimation and investigation. But when you come to attempt to ascertain the chemical changes that occur in the charging and discharging of a storage cell, you encounter formidable difficulties. The outsider has no idea of these difficulties. Nothing seems more simple than to determine the chemical changes that take place in either the positive or the negative plate of a storage battery. It is not so in reality. The substances used as active materials are in the first place mixtures, and the materials obtained at the end of the reactions are also mixtures, and these mixtures are insoluble in any reagent which does not decompose them. They cannot be volatilized; they cannot be subjected to any process of solution and crystallization in order to separate and purify their elements."

Whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the chemical reactions of storage cells, for practical purposes they may be treated as the older and better known primary cells. In many cases these may vary considerably in point of mechanical construction, yet, theoretically, they appear to be governed by the same general laws. A fully-charged storage cell acts much in the same way as a primary cell when newly set up. The storage cell, however, has this great advantage, in that when discharged it can be again brought to its original condition by means of an electric current.

CAPACITY AND EFFICIENCY OF STORAGE CELLS

The total current, and the total energy capacity, of a storage cell is the maximum amount of current or electrical energy which it is capable of storing, without reference to any loss that may occur by it being allowed to remain idle, nor does it take into account the rate or manner of its discharge.

The working current, and the working energy capacity, is that amount of current, or electrical energy, which can be obtained from the cell at any specified rate of discharge. When estimating this, the discharge is always stopped as soon as the cell ceases to do useful work. The working capacity of storage cells may vary between very wide limits.

The absolute current, and the absolute energy efficiency, of an accumulator cell is the ratio between that amount of current or energy put into it and that obtained by a total discharge, without reference either to its rate of charge or discharge, or to the time allowed to elapse between these operations.

The working current, and the working energy efficiency, of a storage cell is the ratio between the value of the current or energy expended in the charging operation, and that obtained when the cell is discharged at any specified rate.

In a lead storage cell, if the surface and quantity of active material be accurately proportioned, and if the discharge be commenced immediately after the termination of the charge, then a current efficiency of as much as 98 per cent may be obtained, provided the rate of discharge is low and well regulated. In practice it is found that low rates of discharge are not economical, and as the current efficiency always decreases as the discharge rate increases, it is found that the normal current efficiency seldom exceeds 90 per cent, and averages about 85 per cent.

As the normal discharging electromotive force of a lead secondary cell never exceeds 2 volts, and as an electromotive force of from 2.4 to 2.5 volts is required at its poles to overcome both its opposing electromotive force and its internal resistance, there is clearly an initial loss of 20 per cent between the energy required to charge it and that given out during its discharge. The normal discharging potential seldom exceeds 2 volts, and as this pressure continually decreases as the rate of discharge increases, it follows that an energy efficiency of 80 per cent can never be realized. As a matter of fact, a maximum of 75 and a mean of 60 per cent is the usual energy efficiency of lead-sulphuric-acid storage cells.

Planté found that peroxide of lead, when electrolytically prepared, gave 1 ampere-hour capacity for every 70 grs. (troy) of the salt. These figures have been substantially confirmed by more recent investigators. According to this we should expect to obtain approximately 100 ampere-hours capacity per pound of positive active material used. In practice, however, this high value is never attained. Sixteen ampere-hours per pound of positive active material is more nearly the best capacity obtained in practical work—in fact, this is seldom reached. This great difference is principally due to the fact that the larger part of the material employed is inactive in the way of producing electrical energy, and merely serves to cement the real active material together and retain it on its metallic support. The loss is also partly due to the fact that it is not economical to use to the fullest extent all the energy stored. In discharging cells it is usual to stop before the pressure at the terminals falls to such a degree as to interfere with the work it is expected to perform. This limit may vary widely, and is entirely dependent upon the work which the cell is constructed to do.

The E. P. S. Batteries.—Owing to defects which speedily developed themselves in Faure's early pasted plates, they never came into commercial use. It was found that by repeated charging and discharging, the loose lead salts tended to permeate through the pores of the felt, and thereby induced the formation of lead trees. These minute metallic bridges caused serious short-circuiting, and ultimately led to the destruction of the elements. The inert porous separating medium, therefore, had to be abandoned, and the short-circuiting difficulty was overcome by leaving a clear liquid space between each pair of plates.

Many plans have been suggested and much ingenuity has been exercised in devising methods of holding active materials on to metallic accumulator elements.

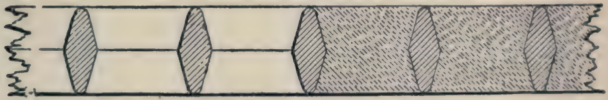


FIG. 6.—E.P.S. GRID

With the knowledge gained from a very large number of experiments, the present form of grid, Fig. 6, was adopted. The usual method is to cast the grids in an iron or steel chill or mould. The elements now in use are perforated with a large number of square apertures, which are tapered inwards from both surfaces of the plate, thus forming a double dove-tail. Owing to their peculiar shape, the pellets of active material tend to key themselves firmly into the countersunk holes.

The negative plates are made of pure lead, and the early form of positives of an alloy of lead and antimony. The antimony was introduced to make the grids hard and less liable to bend, and at the same time to prevent the "eating-in" action of the acid and current. The metal antimony is not dissolvd by a sulphuric acid solution, nor is it much affected by the electrolytic action; the more recent positive grids are made of pure lead. When cast and cleaned up, the grids are filled in with a paste made by adding to minium, water acidulated with sulphuric acid. When dry the plates are placed in a bath containing dilute sulphuric acid, where they are partly formed, or what is known as "hardened," by means of an electric cur-

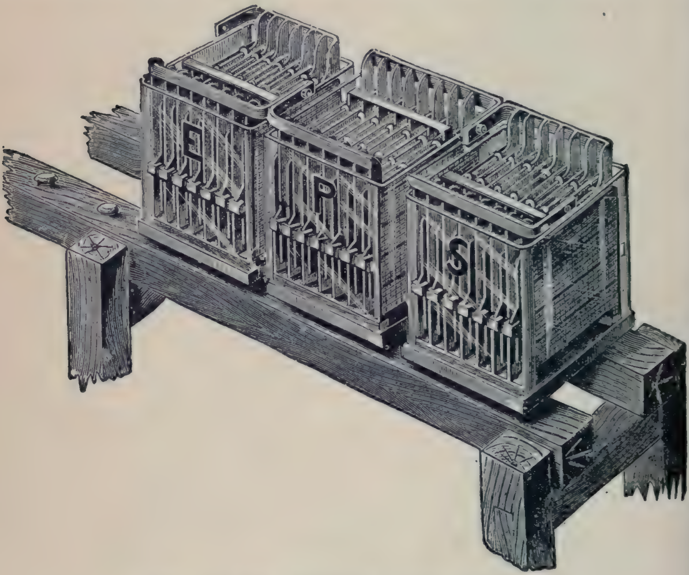


FIG. 7.—E.P.S. ORDINARY LIGHTING CELLS

rent. In all cases the actual forming is done by the purchasers.

In mounting these and similar types of cells in glass boxes, it is usual to place them in wood trays which contain a layer of sawdust to give the glass an even bearing. Each of these trays rests on four glass insulators, one placed under each corner. When fixed up for work, the cells are invariably mounted on wooden stands, as shown in Fig. 7. As a protection against acid fumes or spray, the wood stands are either well shellac-varnished or treated with anti-sulphuric-acid paint.

Of late years improvements have been made in the original E.P.S. plates. The King-Faure plate, now much used, has a series of ledges cast upon it on both sides, and these ledges are filled in with the active material. Plates made on this principle are much thicker than those originally made, and are said to give a greater capacity per pound of plate.

In Fig. 8 is shown one of the high-discharge cells, as used in central electric-light stations or electric railway supply works. The capacity in ampere-hours of these cells, when discharged in five hours, is given as 90 per cent of the nominal, and when discharged in three hours, at about 75 per cent, the full capacity of the battery being based upon a seven-hours discharge.

Another form of cell, designed for motor-cars and similar purposes, is shown in Fig. 9.

The "Hart" Accumulator.—This form of element has been much in evidence lately. The plates used for central station work and ordinary electric lighting are made of cast-lead and built up on the girder principle, with lattice-work arranged alternately on either side and diagonal ribs running across the plate. The active material employed is minium on the positive plate and litharge on the negative. By the mechanical arrangement of the plate, the active material in each is split up into a number of small pellets, a special feature about the plates being that each pellet is gripped hard on its surface by means of a leaden lip attached to the grid and turned over by a spe-

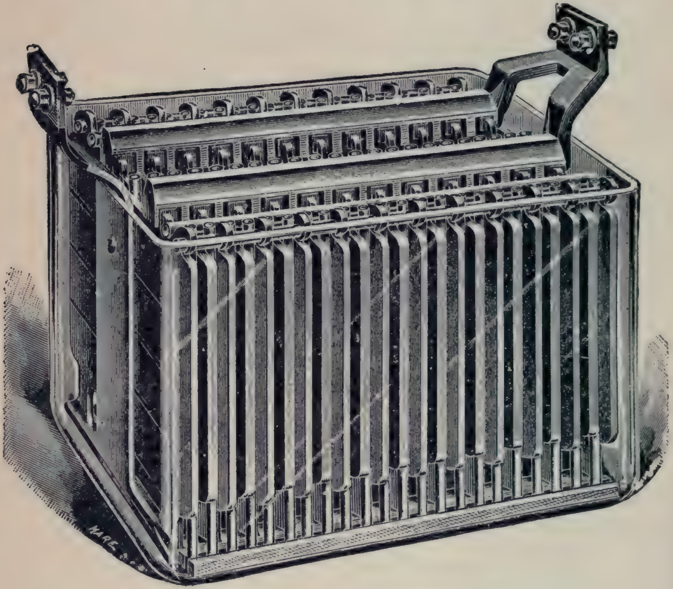


FIG. 8.—E.P.S. HIGH-DISCHARGE CELL

cial process. Each plate is provided with projecting lugs on either side, as shown in Fig. 10.

These lugs, as shown in Figs. 11 and 12, serve to support the element in the cell, as they rest on side-pieces of stout glass, thus keeping the bottoms of the plates quite free and some distance from the bottom of the containing cell.

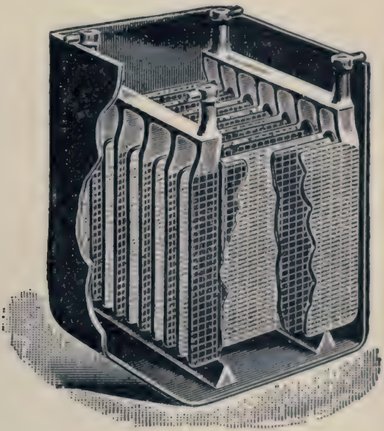


FIG. 9.—E.P.S. TRACTION CELL

The "Hart" cell has been much used recently in connection with the train-lighting system, as carried out by several railway companies. When used for such purposes, the lattice-type plate is only used for the negative element, the positive being a thinly-ribbed plate rather than a grid, the interstices of which are filled up level with the surface with the active material.

In storage batteries where the grid form of plate is employed some rather weak points have developed themselves. In the case of the negative element but few difficulties have occurred, as with these plates, if the apertures were properly filled in and then thoroughly formed, little or no mechanical alteration occurs either during formation or subsequent use. With the positive elements the case is somewhat different; here, during the electrolytic formation, the lead oxides undergo a considerable amount of expansion, this increase of bulk being stated by some investigators to amount to somewhere between 5

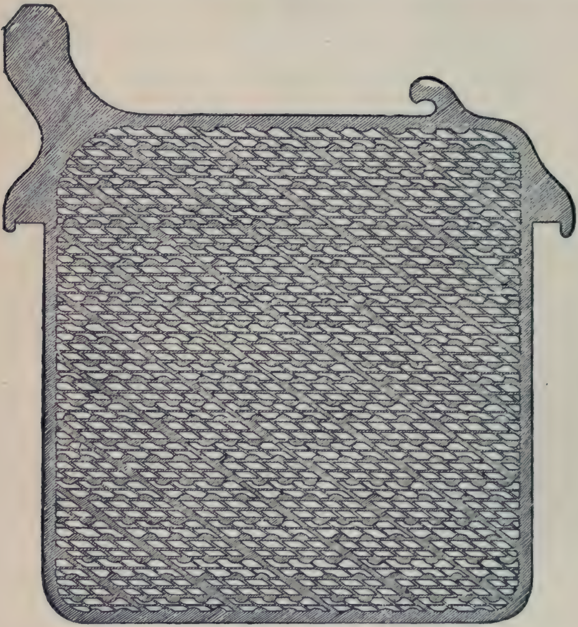


FIG. 10.—HART PLATE LIGHTING TYPE

and 10 per cent of the original mass. Unless, therefore, proper precautions are taken to ensure a uniform expansion in the lead salts, the comparatively rigid grid is liable to suffer considerable distortion. To counteract this distorting influence, the grids may be made mechanically strong either by increasing their thickness, or by introducing some hardening substance into the composition of the metal.

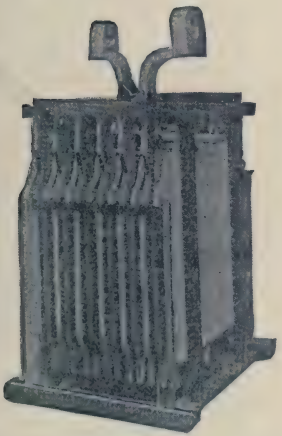


FIG. 11.—HART SET OF ELEMENTS

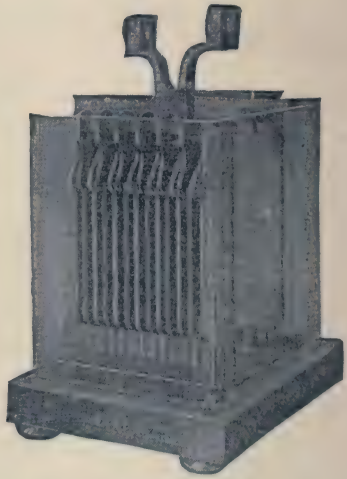


FIG. 12.—HART COMPLETE CELL

As already shown, the pellets of peroxide in the E.P.S. hard-metal grids are keyed in by the peculiar truncated shape of the holes. If the walls of these apertures are too acute, and if the expansion of the active material has not been allowed for, there is a tendency for the little masses of oxide to split and to drop out.

Many attempts have been made to overcome the above-mentioned difficulties. Among these are the methods of running molten metal around suitably-shaped masses of lead oxide or peroxide, or by casting each grid in two parts, and then fixing them together in such a way that the largest part of the truncated holes in each part are coincident.

Currie's Asbestos-Covered Elements.—A plate of somewhat curious form is due to Mr. S. M. Currie. The active material is in a thin layer, no part of it being more than one-eighth of an inch thick. The principal feature of this form of plate, however, resides in the fact that the active material is entirely encased within a sheath or covering of asbestos. The asbestos is first braided in tubular form and of the required thickness, and then cut up into suitable lengths, eight of which are placed in a special mould. Each tube, when placed in the mould, is supplied with a removable brass rod of the same length as the asbestos, but of considerably less diameter, which passes up its centre. By means of a suitable inlet a fused salt of lead, such, for instance, as the chloride of lead, is poured into the mould and fills up the intermediate spaces between the brass rods and the asbestos envelope. The rods are then withdrawn, leaving afterwards the chloride of lead in a compact cylindrical form, with an outer coating of braiding asbestos. The next step is that of filling with pure lead, or an alloy of lead and antimony, the spaces lately occupied by the brass rods, and at one and the same operation casting on a connecting-bar of the same metal to hold the rods the requisite distance apart and to form the necessary connections. The chloride is reduced to porous lead by electrolysis, after which the plate is ready to be fitted up and "formed". When formed in this manner these elements can be used in conjunction with positives of a similar type, or with flat positive plates of the ordinary type.

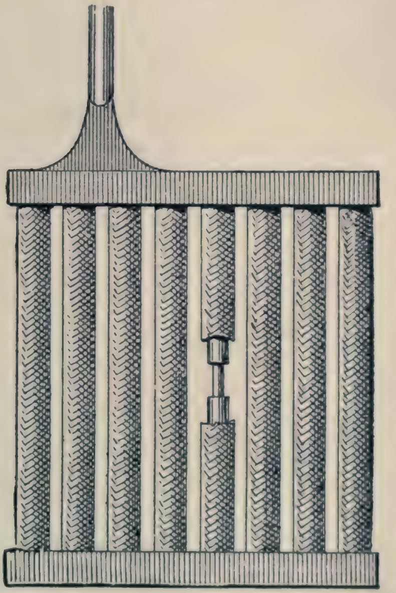


FIG. 13.—CURRIE'S ASBESTOS-COVERED ELEMENTS

"Lithanode" Cells.—A material for making up elements for storage batteries quite distinct from any of those already considered is known as lithanode. It is produced from litharge made into a pasty mass with a solution of sulphate of ammonia, which causes the material to "set", so that it will no longer disintegrate when placed in a fluid. In ordinary practice the elements are made up of a number of small slabs of lithanode, whose outer edges are V-shaped. These slabs or pellets are arranged in a casting mould of any suitable dimensions, and are placed at such a distance apart and from the edges

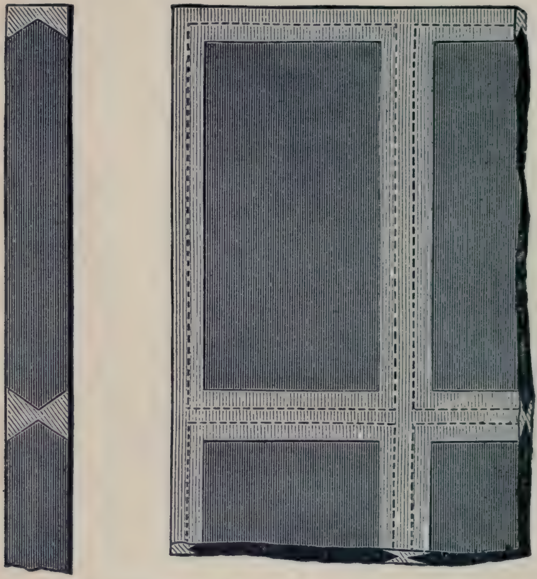


FIG. 14.—EARLY FORM OF LITHANODE PLATE

of the casting frame as to allow of sufficient space for the requisite quantity of metal to run in and impart adequate mechanical strength to the completed element. After the pellets have been arranged in this manner, an alloy of lead and antimony is run into the interstices, and thus a complete plate is formed, as shown in Fig. 14.

Before being cast up the positive pellets are converted into peroxide of lead in a forming bath; those for the negative plates are simply dried and cast up direct, being reduced to a condition of spongy lead by the ordinary electrolytic method.

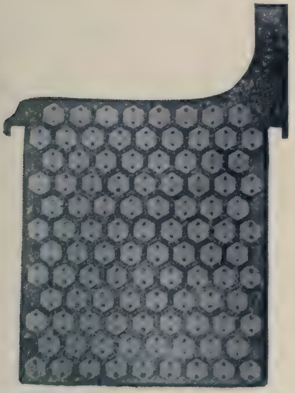


FIG. 15.—CHLORIDE NEGATIVE PLATE

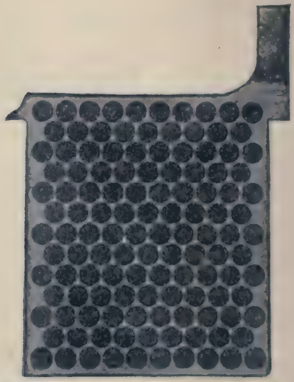


FIG. 16.—CHLORIDE POSITIVE PLATE

Chloride Storage Batteries.—In this case, instead of using litharge, chloride of lead is employed to make the pellets. The method of making chloride plates is somewhat as follows:—Litharge is dissolved in acetic acid;

which gives a resultant compound of acetate of lead. By adding hydrochloric acid to this solution, chloride of lead is precipitated. The precipitate is next passed through a filtering press, which squeezes out the liquid and leaves the chloride of lead in the shape of cakes. The cakes of chloride of lead so prepared are dried and put into melting-pans with a small percentage of zinc, which reduces some of the lead and forms a mixture of lead and zinc chlorides. The molten lead falls to the bottom and is run off from time to time. When melted the salt is run into a suitable mould, the result being the production of small hexagonal pellets. The pellets are next arranged in a metal chill, and an alloy of lead and antimony in a molten state and under pressure is forced into the interstices. The next process is to reduce the chloride. This is done by placing the plates in a reducing tank, alternately a cast plate, and then a plate of zinc. The zinc combines with the chlorine, forming chloride of zinc, and reducing the lead salt into pure spongy lead. Originally both the positive and the negative elements were made in this way, the spongy lead in the positive plate being converted into peroxide by the usual electrolytic method. In the United States the original manufacturers of chloride cells, the Electric Storage Co., have abandoned the above method of constructing their positive element, and, following out the prevailing fashion, the chloride plate is only used as the negative element; the positive is of different construction, and is of the Planté type. The positive plate, which is cast in a mould, has a large number of holes in it. These are about three-quarters of an inch in diameter, and slightly tapered outwards on both sides of the plate. Into the cast holes are pressed small rosettes of lead. These, which exactly fit the holes, consist of lengths of pure lead-strip gimped, and rolled up in the form of small coils. When all the apertures are filled in the plates are submitted to pressure in a hydraulic press, which operation keys in the rosettes.

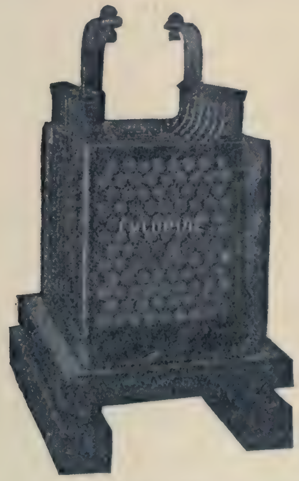


FIG. 17.—CHLORIDE COMPLETE CELL

Mechanically Solid Batteries.—There can be no doubt that at present an inexpensive and mechanically solid storage battery is a great desideratum. There is an enormous scope for a cell which will combine large capacity and small weight, which will withstand without injury high rates of charge and discharge, and possess in addition great mechanical strength and solidity.

Great hopes were entertained at one time that the solidity problem had been solved by the introduction of Dr. Schoop's elastic electrolyte. One great drawback to the employment of a viscous or gelatinous electrolyte resides in the fact that, when such substances are used, no free circulation of the liquid is possible. We have already seen that the activity of secondary battery elements depends entirely upon chemical action; and as the electrolyte is the medium through which all the necessary reactions take place, it seems highly probable that anything which prevents its free access to the active material must be detrimental to the action of the cell.

Niblett's Mechanically Solid Battery.—This cell in its original form was of the Planté type, and each element consisted of a highly cellular mass of material, which, owing to its form of construction, was capable of absorbing a sufficient quantity of the electrolyte for the due performance of all the necessary chemical reactions. Between the electrodes was placed a thin, highly porous inert diaphragm, which served to complete the solid character of the cell. The metal which constituted the elements was prepared by dropping red-hot molten lead into water, and was rendered active by the usual Planté method of formation.

Owing to the cellular nature of these elements the liquid contained within their pores was continually circulating throughout the mass, the slight evolution of gas accruing during the charge and discharge being quite sufficient to effect this.

The cellular construction of the elements gave them the peculiar property of automatically regulating their own internal resistance, for if the cell be charged at too high a rate, or when it is on the point of receiving the full complement of its charge, the gas generated tends to drive the electrolyte from the pores of the elements, and itself to remain imprisoned therein, thereby largely increasing the internal resistance. Much in the same way, as the discharge proceeds, the occluded gas re-enters into chemical combination, and allows the liquid to refill the pores, and thus exposes more active surface.

Lead-zinc, Copper, and Alkaline Storage Cells.—Hitherto we have only considered storage cells in which lead and lead compounds are used in the active materials. Many other combinations of metals and salts have been tried, and it is possible that it is in this direction that we must look for any startling and epoch-making development. It must be admitted, however, that so far only those cells in which lead and its salts have been used have proved a commercial success.

As previously stated, the value of peroxide of lead, when employed as a depolarizer in certain forms of primary batteries, has been known and appreciated for many years. On the introduction of Planté's and Faure's peroxide cells the interest of electro-chemists was re-awakened to this fact, and by experiment it was soon demonstrated that if a fully-charged peroxide of lead element, in conjunction with a zinc plate, be immersed in a solution of dilute sulphuric acid, a powerful electric current is obtained, which possesses a very high electromotive force. The chemical reactions involved in such a cell are doubtless of a somewhat complicated nature, but an analysis of the electrolyte of a discharged cell shows that the sulphuric acid combines with the zinc, forming sulphate of zinc, which passes into solution, and that the hydrogen gas liberated during the chemical combination attacks the oxygen in the lead peroxide and reduces it to a form of a lower oxide. In addition to this deoxidizing process there is the sulphating action of the lead compounds, which, as already explained, occurs during the discharging operations in all forms of lead-sulphuric-acid storage cells. During the recharging a reverse action seems to occur; the zinc is abstracted from its solution, and is deposited upon the zinc electrode, and at the same time the reduced lead oxide re-acquires its lost oxygen.

The chemical reactions during the charging operation are probably fairly represented by the following equation:—

$$\mathrm{Pb\,SO_4 + Zn\,SO_4 + 2\,H_2O = Pb\,O_2 + Zn + 2\,H_2\,SO_4}.$$

According to Emile Reynier the chemical reactions of a discharge have two phases, which may be stated thus:—

At the outset one equivalent of sulphate is carried both to the positive and negative elements, as represented by the equation—

$$PbO_2 + Zn + 2\,H_2SO_4 = PbSO_4 + ZnSO_4 + 2\,H_2O.$$

During the second phase another equivalent of zinc is sulphated at the negative pole, and an equivalent of hydrogen reacts upon the positive element, during which operation the active material resolves itself into metallic lead and sulphuric acid, as shown by the following equation:—

$$2\,PbSO_4 + Zn + H_2O = ZnSO_4 + 2\,Pb + H_2SO_4.$$

Immediately after a charge the electromotive force developed by a zinc-peroxide couple may reach 2.7 volts. During a discharge the internal resistance of this form of cell is found to vary between very wide limits. At the commencement it is about the same as that of the lead-peroxide couple, but as the discharge proceeds the resistance is continually being augmented owing to the conversion of the highly-conducting acid electrolyte into sulphate of zinc solution, which has a much higher specific resistance.

It has been found that if chemically-pure zinc is immersed in pure dilute sulphuric acid no combination occurs, the metal remaining quite unaffected. If, however, commercial zinc be used, which invariably contains, among other impurities, iron, lead, and arsenic, then the acid is found to quickly attack the zinc, and rapid combination occurs. This action is probably due to the formation of innumerable minute galvanic couples between the true metallic zinc and the iron, lead, or other impurities; so that when commercial zinc is used as an electrode in a lead-zinc cell a considerable quantity of the electrical energy is dissipated owing to this form of local action. This loss of energy not only occurs while the cell is in action, but is always going on, even if the cell be allowed to remain inactive, or during periods of repose. Thoroughly amalgamating the zinc is found to considerably reduce the tendency to local action.

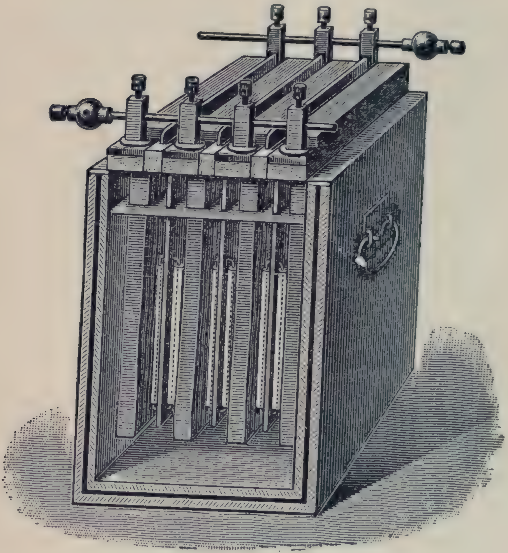


FIG. 18.—REYNIER'S ZINC-LEAD CELL

Reynier's Zinc-Lead Peroxide Cell.—Among the first to practically develop the lead-zinc storage cell was the late Emile Reynier. In his form of secondary cell he employed an ordinary Planté or Faure peroxide plate, in conjunction with thin sheets of lead on which a thick layer of electrolized zinc had been deposited. By the utilization of pure electrolized zinc many of the difficulties arising from local action were eliminatel. A battery of this description (Fig. 18), introduced in the year 1884, was constructed as follows:—

Each cell contained four peroxide plates of the Planté type, which presented an extensive active surface, and three negative elements made of smooth sheet-lead, and covered with electrolized zinc which had been deposited from an acidulated bath of sulphate of zinc. When building up the cells accidental contact between the electrodes was guarded against by the insertion of glass insulating-tubes, which were secured to the negative plates by means of leaden strips. The seven electrodes were carried by cross-pieces of paraffined hardwood, which rested on the edges of the containing cell, and served to keep the elements in position. These cross-pieces were made of sufficient width to just touch one another, and thus they served the double purpose of holder and cover.

The following particulars of a cell of this construction were given by M. Reynier:—

Total area of active positive surface..	3,100 sq. inches
Total area of active negative surface..	1,325 sq. inches

Weight of positive elements	18 lbs.
Weight of negative elements	3 lbs.
Weight of containing-trough	6 lbs.
Weight of electrolyte	9.6 lbs.
Weight of connectors	1 lb.
Total weight of complete cell	37.75 lbs.

From a cell of this form of construction the following results were obtained:—

Electromotive force	2.36 volts.
Mean internal resistance	0.02 ohm.
Rate of discharge	25 amperes.
Rate of charge	5 to 10 amperes.
Capacity of cell after 200 hours formation	152 ampere-hours.

The Lalande and Chaperon Alkaline Cell.—Hitherto but little seems to have been done in the way of utilizing this cell as a medium for storing electrical energy, but as an economical primary generator it has been highly spoken of. It may therefore be of interest to briefly consider this form of cell, as it may serve to throw some light upon the more distinct types of alkaline accumulators.

Messrs. Lalande and Chaperon ascertained that oxide of copper was readily reduced to its metallic form when used in conjunction with zinc in an electrolyte of caustic potash. Their first copper elements were prepared by mixing small quantities of the oxychloride of magnesium with oxide of copper, and then, to ensure good electrical conductivity, this plastic mass was moulded on to a metallic support, and pressed into the desired shape. Electrodes constructed according to this method were found to expose a very large active surface, but as the resultant by-products were of little value they were soon abandoned. Accordingly it occurred to the inventors that far more economical elements might be prepared by applying the copper oxides to a conductor which was placed horizontally, and in such a manner that the copper salts merely rested loosely and lightly upon it. Cells of the horizontal gravity type were accordingly made, and in these the zincs were suspended in the upper part so that the dense solution of zincate of potash, when formed, sunk by reason of its density to the bottom of the cell and remained there, while the lighter and more active solution was free to attack the suspended zinc. The chemical destruction of the zinc plates, when placed under these conditions, was found to go on with perfect uniformity, and by experiment it was demonstrated that a zinc element, eight .3 inch thick, was consumed so regularly that it remained quite intact, and continued to expose its original surface area until it became reduced to only .078 inch in thickness.

The inventors found that caustic soda gave apparently the same results as the potash, both as regards the electromotive force and internal resistance, but as soda salts are liable to creep, they preferred to employ the potash. The electromotive force developed by this cell is somewhat low, being only about 0.8 of a volt, but this is in a measure compensated for by a small internal resistance.

The following may be taken as representing the chemical reactions which occur during a discharge of the zinc potash-copper oxide cell:—

$$Zn + 2\ KHO + CuO = K_2ZnO_2 + Cu + H_2O.$$

PORTABLE CELLS

SEMI-PORTABLE AND PORTABLE STORAGE BATTERIES

Probably no individual type of secondary cell will be found to answer for the very varied and ever-increasing purposes to which this class of apparatus is now being applied, and it follows that some form of specialization must occur.

For central electric-light stations, or for such work as levelling up the loads on electric tramways, where moderately constant work is required, a battery whose weight is large, or whose bulk is great, may be safely used. For self-contained electric-light installations, weight and space occupied by the battery is of some moment; and where intermittent charging only is resorted to, absence of local action is desirable. The battery under these circumstances may have to stand idle for considerable periods, and it would not do for it to lose its charge while thus waiting. For traction purposes, where charging each day, or even several times per day, may be practiced, local action is not such an objection, and the loss sustained thereby may be neglected. For some forms of vehicles, which may be only occasionally used, and may have considerable waits between the periods of use—waits which may extend over days and even weeks—the absence of local action is essential. A fifth class of apparatus, in which storage batteries are now playing a most important part, is that of self-contained portable electric lamps, so largely used for medical and other purposes. In this case absence of local action, lightness and compactness, together with great mechanical strength, is absolutely essential. In many cases such cells are required to hold their current for many months, and this can only be obtained where there is little or no local action. Again, as the plates used in these small batteries are of small dimensions, the form of construction may be such as is not permissible in any other class of apparatus.

As a convenient means of obtaining an electrical current of small amount and of short duration, perhaps no electrical generator is so convenient and easily manipulated as a good form of primary battery. But, on the other hand, where cost is a consideration, or where comparatively large and continuous currents of uniform pressure are required, primary batteries are altogether out of the question.

In the best types of primary batteries zinc is used as the decomposable element, and zinc may therefore be regarded as the fuel of this particular form of cell. Sulphuric acid is generally employed as the excitant fluid, and some form of oxidizing agent as a depolarizer is required if only approximate constancy is aimed at. To produce a unit of electrical energy it is found that, excluding the cost of the depolarizer, zinc is fully twenty times as expensive as coal. Taking into account all losses in a secondary battery, and allowing for an efficiency of, say, only 50 per cent, it follows that for continuous and regular working for such a piece of apparatus as an electromotor for instance, the maintenance of primary batteries would come out fully ten times more costly than that of a secondary battery.

A subject which at the present moment is receiving a vast amount of attention is the various means of propelling vehicles over common roads. Not only is it of interest to electrical and mechanical engineers and carriage builders, but it has been taken into serious consideration by all those responsible for the regulation of traffic in our large towns. The subject is of such huge importance that it not only affects those whose business or pleasure calls for some rapid and safe means of transport from place to place, but it affects the safety and comfort of the ordinary pedestrian as well. Our present system of horse traffic is open to many objections, not only from a humanitarian point of view, but from its sanitarian and economic aspect as well. The streets in our large towns would present a vastly different aspect if, instead of horses, some other means of drawing our vehicles were used.

Much attention has been given to the application of steam, petroleum, and spirits to produce the necessary motive power: but there is but little doubt that electricity will eventually supersede them all, not only on the score of economy, but owing to its freedom from heat, steam, disagreeable odour, and to the ease with which it can be manipulated.

As to the probabilities of the self-contained electric motor-car comparing favourably with other methods, this will entirely depend upon its economic aspect. However great the convenience of electric power, however great its its reliability, ease of manipulation, sanitary aspect, and general convenience, the question as to whether it is best or not has still to be satisfactorily answered. In its present experimental stage trustworthy figures of the daily or weekly cost of up-keep cannot be expected. It is only by taking the average expenses incurred during months or years that anything like an accurate estimate can be arrived at. The initial cost and cost of maintenance of the batteries employed will be the controlling factor. Whatever turn the idea of electrically-propelled motor-cars may take, it must necessarily involve the use of some apparatus for storing and giving out electrical energy.

The desirable qualification of storage batteries of a semi-portable or portable character are—(1) Small weight, (2) Small bulk, (3) Great mechanical strength and durability, and (4) Capability of withstanding very high rates of charge and discharge.

The cells which we shall now briefly consider are especially devised with a view to fulfilling some, or all, of the above conditions.

The "Marschner" Cell.—This battery was recently tried on the Dresden railways. The plates were stated to consist of the ordinary oxides of lead, incorporated with powdered amber and an essential oil. This mixture was said to "set" very hard, the resultant plate being of a tough metal-like nature. On the Dresden cars 144 cells of this make were used. The total weight of the complete battery was given as 5,290 pounds. The current efficiency of the battery was stated to be over 90 per cent, and if discharged at its normal rate—that was, 65 amperes—an energy capacity of about 8 watt-hours per pound of complete cell was obtained.

Tommasi Cell.—M. Tommasi was one of the first to construct storage battery elements on the tubular plan. Most of these tubular elements took the form of a perforated tube made of lead or antimonial-lead, the inside being filled with active material. Recently a modification of this cell has been used for traction purposes in France and elsewhere with some degree of success. In the traction cell perforated celluloid is used instead of the lead. In the centre of this is placed a plate of antimonial-lead which forms the conductor. The intervening space is filled in with a semi-fluid paste of lead oxides. The advantages claimed for this construction are that disintegration of the active material is prevented, and that the metal core only being used as a conductor and support it is protected in a measure from the corrosive action of the electrolyte by the lead oxides.

The "Sperry" Traction Cell.—This is an American production. The conductors are thin sheet-lead plates corrugated horizontally and then pierced with trapezoidal holes, so as to resemble a corrugated grater. The active material used is one of powdered lead 80 parts, and 20 per cent of lead oxide, to which is added a small quantity of an alkaline salt. The material is moistened, and applied to the conductor under a pressure of 1,000 lbs. per square inch, when a solid compact mass results. Before placing in the containing cell the elements are covered with a pyroxylin envelope, made from a coarse cotton cloth treated with a coating of pure cellulose. To prevent damage through jarring, the elements are placed in a vulcanite cell, and rest upon soft resilient ribs.

The Sperry cell is said to give 1.75 ampere, 9.187 ampere-hours, and 18.15 watt-hours per pound gross weight, at a 5.5-hour discharge, and 15.09 watt-hours at a 3-hour rate.

The Sherrin Cell.—This traction cell proved itself a success in the recent Automobile Clubs' Competition, and seems to promise well. The Sherrin elements are built of rods, deeply grooved on one side and twisted up much in the same way as an American twist drill. These rods are made of lead, and to give lateral springiness holes are drilled at intervals through the thinnest part of the plate. To regulate the thickness of the layer of active material which is afterwards applied, a helix cut from an ebonite tube is passed over the metal core, and this serves likewise to support the paste. The idea is that the slight twisting and untwisting of the core and insulating helix provide for longitudinal expansion and contraction due to changes which may be produced during a charge or discharge. As an additional safeguard against damage, when the cells are used for motor-car work, a thin perforated vulcanite sheet is wrapped tightly round the rods. At the above competition this battery gave the highest mean efficiency, viz. 70 per cent, and it was said to be the only battery whose cells did not fall below the prescribed limit of 1.7 volt per cell.

Niblett's Traction Cell.—The metallic conductor used in this form of cell is of small dimensions and light weight. It forms the backbone of a frame wherein the active material is contained, and is so arranged that all those parts immersed in the electrolyte and not covered by the active material are insulated. By this arrangement all the lead salts are brought under direct electrolytic action, and therefore uniformity of formation is ensured both in the initial processes and also in the charging and discharging operations, and greater efficiency is obtained.

The material employed in both the positive and negative plates is not the usual lead oxides, but is a compound of lead salts produced electrolytically, and is of a conductive nature. When set and properly seasoned, the material is of a stone-like character somewhat resembling lithanode, but far more porous and conductive. The conductivity is obtained by incorporating with the ordinary chemically-prepared lead salts the electrolized oxides, and the porosity by mixing with the mass a small quantity of an infusorial earth. The latter material is obtained native, and consists of nearly pure quartz in a highly fibrous condition. This peculiar form of quartz is rather remarkable; it is exceedingly light, and is not affected even by concentrated acids at ordinary temperatures, nor is it decomposed by electrolytic action.

As in the case of lithanode, the resultant material produced by the above process is of such a coherent and hard texture that, as a positive plate it may be used in the form of blocks or slabs, the conductor being merely clamped on to it, or it may be made in the form of pellets and have the metal conductor cast around it in the ordinary way.

As separators between the elements a new material of a highly porous nature is used. This mixture is composed of kaolin and the same kind of infusorial earth as used in the active materials. This composition, when mixed and thoroughly burned in a kiln, is exceedingly hard yet highly porous.

By adopting the thin, rigid, porous, earthenware separators, all possibility of short-circuiting is obviated, and the plates may be brought very closely together.

A somewhat curious feature with reference to the above form of cell has been noticed. When on discharge, should the containing-box in which the elements stand become broken and all the electrolyte escape, the cell will still go on discharging for a considerable period without in any way showing a falling off in its discharge rate. It is found that sufficient electrolyte is retained in the porous separators and material to allow all the requisite chemical reactions due to a discharge to go on. Tests have been made with sets of fully-charged elements which have been entirely removed from their electrolyte and thoroughly drained. In some cases as much as 50 per cent of the available energy at normal discharge rates has been obtained from cells so treated. This feature is of some importance, especially in cells used for traction or motor-car work, or under conditions where a broken containing-box would be liable to produce a complete break-down.

The Fulmen Traction Cell. The following description of this well known cell will serve to make plain the details of its construction, and operation. Small oblong pellets of the material are placed in a mould, and are converted into plates by running molten antimonial-lead round them. In the cells made for the Paris cab trials were six positive plates and seven negative. The total weight of each positive plate was 16½ ounces, and of this about two-thirds consisted of the slabs of active material. The negatives each weighed 13½ ounces; 4½ ounces of this was metal support. The total exposed area of positive surface was 325 square inches, and the total weight of the complete cell was 16½ lbs. The normal discharge was

21 amperes, and at this rate the cells are said to have had a capacity of 105 ampere-hours, the current capacity being 6.4 ampere-hours per pound of complete cell.

Bristol's Batteries.—Bristol constructs elements by incorporating oxides of lead with binding material, such as asbestos fibre, animal hair, horn shavings, or some similar fibrous substance, which is capable of giving the mass just sufficient cohesiveness to retain its shape without the aid of a metallic support. The salts of lead, when mixed with from 1 to 3 per cent by weight of the fibrous material, are found to have sufficient mechanical strength to resist all ordinary disintegrating influences either mechanical or electrical. When the binding material has been thoroughly incorporated with the metallic oxides, it is moistened and made into a stiff pasty mass and pressed into moulds to give it the desired shape, and either a flattened lead wire or a platinum strip having lateral branches is inserted within the soft mass to act as a conductor. When dry, the masses are "formed" in an acid bath by the usual method. Distance-pieces of wood saturated with paraffin-wax are placed between the plates to keep them the proper distance apart.

The Pescetto Cell.—This cell is an Italian production, and is said to derive its superiority from the highly porous nature of the active material used. The metalilc supports are of the grid pattern, and each aperture has prongs extending from the cross-bars. The lead oxides are mixed with a material made by boiling sugar in dilute sulphuric acid. The same material is used for both elements. It is said that during the forming operation this binding material is eliminated, thus leaving the mass in a highly porous state. The cells are made up in three distinct types, so as to fit them for various rates of discharge. Thus, we find that a range of from 0.69 to 6.9 ampere-hours per pound of cell is obtained, while the period for recharging is said to range from 7½ hours down to 15 minutes. The energy capacity is said to vary between 8.85 and 2.28 watt-hours per pound of complete cell according to the nature of the material employed.

The Gulcher Cell.—This form of cell, known as the "Woven-Glass Cell", differs somewhat from the general run in that its conductive support is not entirely composed of metal. The supporting frame is of the "mesh" type, and in its construction parallel wires of lead are interwoven with threads of exceedingly fine spun glass. The wire is used as the "warp" thread, and the spun glass as the "woof". The active material on being pasted on to this support entangles itself in its meshes, and becomes firmly secured.

When assembling the elements pads of glass-wool, similar to that used by chemists to filter acids, are placed between the plates, thus preventing the active material from detaching itself from its support. Plates built up on this plan have been, it is said, largely used with much success by several German firms of traction engineers.

Pitkin's Portable Accumulators.—The Pitkin elements are very simple in construction. They consist of small cast-metal plates, each having an outer raised rim on both of its sides, and a number of small tapered pins of the same height studded over its entire surface. To retain the plates at the requisite distances apart, and to prevent bending and warping, small round vulcanite pins are screwed into the extremities of the positive plates, and are cut off of just sufficient length to allow them to slip tightly down between the two negative plates. Minium made into a stiff paste with dilute sulphuric acid is used for both positive and negative plates. The forming is carried on in the usual way.

Boese-Lutcke Traction Cells.—This is another of the traction cells in which solid blocks or slabs of active material are used. Litharge is used for the negative and minium for the positive plates. These oxides are made into a paste by being mixed with a compound made from anthracene dissolved in pure alcohol. The anthracene mixture is made by boiling this material in dilute acetic acid until it becomes a syrupy mass, when minium is added to it, and it is again boiled until the lead salt is entirely dissolved. A small quantity of this compound is mixed in alcohol, and this forms the solution for producing the paste. After being moulded into the desired shape, the elements are pierced with small holes to give them porosity, and when dry and seasoned, the pellets are placed in a mould and lead, or antimonial-lead is run in around them. The lead oxides prepared in the above manner harden very quickly, and it is stated that the drying operation only takes a few hours.

The "Lecoil" Traction Cell is somewhat of a departure from the ordinary run of traction cells. In one form used for working a motor-car, each cell contains ten cylindrical porous pots constituting a set of positive elements. In each of these porous vessels is placed a metal core. The core is centrally fixed, and the whole of the space is then filled in with lead oxides in a pasty condition. Surrounding each of these solid elements is a thin copper gauze cylinder; these when joined up constitute the negative element. The solution used is said to be a mixture of the sulphates of cadmium, magnesium, and zinc. During the forming the oxide in the porous vessels is converted into peroxide, while the zinc, and probably the cadmium and magnesium, are deposited on the copper mesh. During the discharge the oxide of lead is reduced in the ordinary way, and the metal on the copper re-enters into solution. The open E.M.F. when newly charged is given as 2.55 volts per cell, and the energy capacity is 12 watt-hours per pound of complete cell. Another advantage claimed for this cell is that it can be discharged at very high rates without injury, and also that the presence of the cadmium and magnesium prevents the violent local action so destructive to most forms of lead-zinc cells.

The Edison Motor-Car Cell.—The following description of this cell is given by Dr. Kennelly.

"The negative pole or positive element is iron, the positive pole or negative element is a superoxide of nickel believed to have the formula NiO_2. The electrolyte is potash, viz. an aqueous solution containing from 10 to 40 per cent by weight, but preferably 20 per cent, of potassium hydroxide.

"The initial voltage of discharge after recent charge is 1.5 volt. The mean voltage of full discharge is approximately 1.1 volt. The normal discharging current rate per unit area of active element (positive or negative) is 8.64 amperes per square foot. The storage capacity of the cell per unit of total mass of the cell is 14 watt-hours per pound of battery. The mean normal discharging power-rate per unit mass of total cell is 4 watts per pound, corresponding to a normal discharge period of 3½

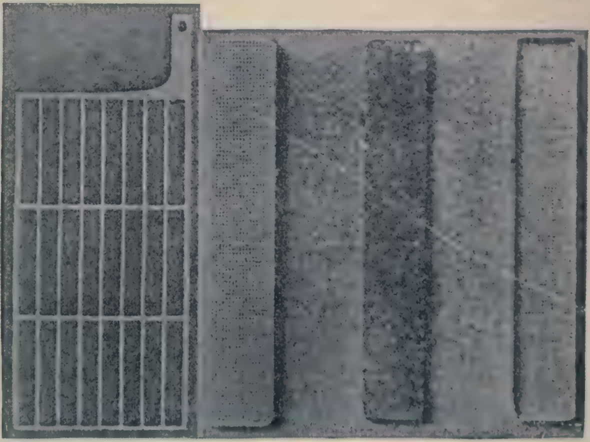


FIG. 19.—EDISON'S ELEMENTS

hours. The cell may, however, be discharged at a relatively high rate, in approximately 1 hour, corresponding to a discharging power-rate per unit of total cell mass of 12 watts per pound."

"Each plate is formed of a comparatively thin sheet of steel, 0.024 inch in thickness, in which rectangular holes are stamped, so as to leave a grid or frame, somewhat resembling a window-frame. Each opening or recess is filled with a pocket or shallow box containing the active material. These pockets are perforated with numerous small holes to admit the electrolyte, but entirely conceal the contained active material from view."

"The active material is made in the form of rectangular cakes or briquettes, and one such briquette is lodged in each pocket or 'window-pane' of the plate. Each of the plates, therefore, supports, or contains, twenty-four briquettes of active material, all in rigid contact with its own substance. Each briquette is placed in a shallow, closely-fitting nickel-plated box of thin perforated crucible steel, cut from a long strip of that material 0.003 inch thick. A cover or lid of the same material is then laid over it, so that the briquette is closely enveloped by the sides and walls of its perforated steel box. The boxes are then placed in the openings or holes in the nickel-plated steel grid, and closely fit the same. The assembled plate is then placed in a hydraulic press and subjected to a total pressure of about 100 tons. This pressure not only tightly closes the boxes, but it also forces their metal sides over the adjacent sides of the recesses in the steel grid, thus clamping the whole mass into a single solid and rigid steel plate, with the hollow 'window-panes' full of active material. The finished plate has a grid thickness of 0.024 inch, and a 'window' or pocket thickness of 0.1 inch (2.5 mm.)."

"The positive briquettes are made by mixing a finely-divided compound of iron, obtained by a special chemical process, with a nearly equal volume of thin flakes of graphite. The graphite does not enter into any of the chemical actions, but assists the conductivity of the briquettes. The graphite is divided into very thin laminæ by a chemical process, and these are passed through sieves or screens so as to leave a size and area of flake that is much larger than the area of the perforation in the steel windows. The mixture is then pressed into briquettes in a mould, under a hydraulic pressure of about 2 tons per square inch. The briquettes have a surface area of nearly 3 inches by 1½ inch on each face."

"The negative briquettes are made by similarly mixing a finely-divided compound of nickel, obtained by special chemical means, with a nearly equal bulk of fine flakes of graphite, and solidifying the mixture in a mould into briquettes of the same size as above."

"In charging, the current deoxidizes or reduces the compound to spongy metallic iron, and carries the oxygen through the film of electrolyte to the nickel compound, oxidizing it to the superoxide of nickel, NiO_2, a higher oxide than the peroxide. In other words, the charging current simply carries oxygen in the opposite direction, against the forces of chemical affinity, from the iron to the nickel, and stores the energy in the reduced iron, which is, of course, unaffected and passive in the presence of the potash solution. On discharge, the oxygen moves back against the current and partially reduces the nickel superoxide NiO_2 while oxidizing the spongy iron."

"In the new Edison cell the theoretical action of the potash solution is merely to provide the proper channel through which the oxygen irons may travel in one direction or the other—positive plate to negative plate in charge, and negative plate to positive plate in discharge. Consequently the amount of solution needs only to be sufficient to fulfil the mechanical requirements. It is believed that the weight of solution will in practice be only about 20 per cent of the plate weight or about 14 per cent of the cell weight. In fact, the cell may be worked in the same manner as the so-called primary 'dry-cells'. Moreover, if the solution should escape or be carried away, by gassing in charging, the only detriment seems to be the loss of active surface thereby occasioned, and it will only be necessary to fill up the cells to the proper level with water from time to time, as evaporation or gassing may lower the level. For the same reasons, the specific gravity of the electrolyte does not appreciably vary during charge and discharge."

"The briquettes of active material slightly expand on receiving oxygen, and slightly contract on delivering it. The level of the solution is in this way scarcely affected. The expansions and contractions of the briquettes appear to be well within the elastic limits of the spring-steel containing-boxes, and consequently the electric contact is always secure. The covers or sides of the window-pockets merely approach to, or recede from each other slightly during charge or discharge. Fortunately, steel is the metal which possesses this mechanical elasticity in a marked degree."

Classes of Batteries.—Batteries used on electric vehicles can be divided into two classes: those used for pleasure vehicles, and those used for commercial delivery wagons and trucks. The type of battery is, in general, the same. In commercial service, however, the batteries run to much larger sizes, and, in consequence of this, as well as the less resilient spring and tire action, they are of necessity assembled in a more heavy and substantial manner. Storage batteries consist of the following elementary parts: positive plates, negative plates, separators, straps, jars, covers, connectors and crates.

Sizes of Plates. The plates are made of different sizes, but the two sizes most used are the MV, 8⅝ inches high by 5¾ inches wide, and the PV, 8⅝ inches high by 4¾ inches wide. The MV is rated at seven amperes per positive plate for four hours, and the PV at six amperes for four hours; a sufficient number of plates are assembled in each cell to give the required capacity, and a sufficient number of cells are connected in series to give the required voltage. Each cell consists of a rubber jar, an element and electrolyte. The rubber jar consists of a deep rectangular box of hard rubber, with walls one-eighth of an inch thick, more or less, according to the size and service. In the bottom of the jar, and made integral with it, are bridges or ribs of height consistent with the service, and whose function it is to support the weight of the element and to provide space, into which is deposited the sediment thrown off by the plates with wear.

Standard Capacity. Present practice is to rate batteries on the basis of their four-hour capacity; for instance, a nine-PV cell is rated at twenty-four amperes for four hours; the eleven-MV cell is rated at thirty-five amperes for four hours. The reason for this is that present practice is to so construct the vehicles that at an average current consumption they will run for about four hours. Exide batteries, with proper use, may be used from 15 to 25 per cent above their rated capacity.

Number of Cells. From forty to forty-two is the largest number of cells that it is customary to use, as more than this number cannot be charged in series from a 110-volt lighting circuit, and, without special and inconvenient apparatus. It is bad practice to charge batteries in parallel. In the smaller equipments, where the use of forty or forty-two cells would necessitate cells of very small size, it is common practice to use fewer cells of a larger size.

Rubber Covers. In pleasure vehicles service it is customary to enclose the cells with a tight-fitting rubber cover resting on the plate straps, slightly below the top of the jar, and to seal the joints with sealing compound, placing a rubber plug in a hole in the center of the cover for filling cells with water to replace evaporation, the plug being supplied with a small hole for the escape of gases. In commercial service, covers are often dispensed with altogether, as the batteries are usually in service a greater proportion of the time, and require filling and inspection much oftener. Where covers are used to prevent splashing, they usually rest on special supports and are seldom sealed.

Wood Separators. The separator, which has proved by experience to be the most successful, consists of a piece of wood with parallel grooves about one-quarter of an inch wide, spaced close together and plowed out on one side. The plain sides are placed directly against the face of the negative plates. A thin sheet of perforated rubber is placed against the grooved side of the wood and rests against the face of the positive plate. The wood is given a special treatment so as to remove any substances contained in it that would otherwise do damage to the plates.

Straps. The element consists of positive and negative plates burned to straps, and kept apart by separators interposed between the positive and negative plates. In assembling an element, a negative plate is laid down with a separator on it, then a positive plate, separator, negative plate, and so on. The plates are so placed that all the lugs of the positive plates are on one side and all the lugs of the negative plates are on the other side. A strap, consisting of a flat strip of lead or lead alloy, having rectangular openings in it of the same dimensions as the cross-section of the lug of the plates, these openings being spaced to register with the lugs, is then placed over the plate lugs of the positive plates, and a similar strap is placed over the lugs of the negative plates. The lugs are then burned into integral union with the straps. In pleasure vehicle service it is customary to make the plate lugs comparatively short, so that the straps are somewhat below the top of the jar, and a cover consisting of

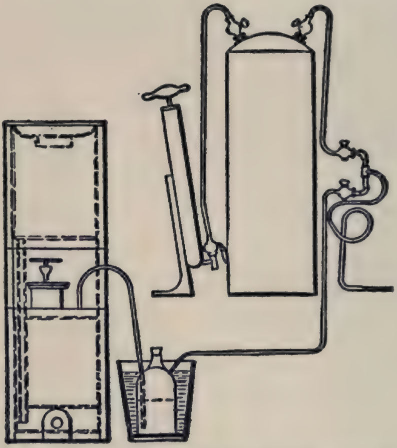


FIG. 20.—METHOD OF BURNING STRAP IN PLACE

a rectangular piece of hard rubber is placed on top of the straps, which are furnished with projections extending through holes in the cover, and by which the cells are connected by burned joints. In commercial service the batteries are usually assembled with top straps, and the plate lugs extend above the top of the jar, the strap having two rows of holes in it, one row being placed over the corresponding row of plate lugs of one cell, and the other row of holes being placed over the plate lugs of opposite polarity in the adjoining cell, and the cell is completed by burning the lugs to the straps, which, in this case, themselves make the connection from cell to cell, an arrange-

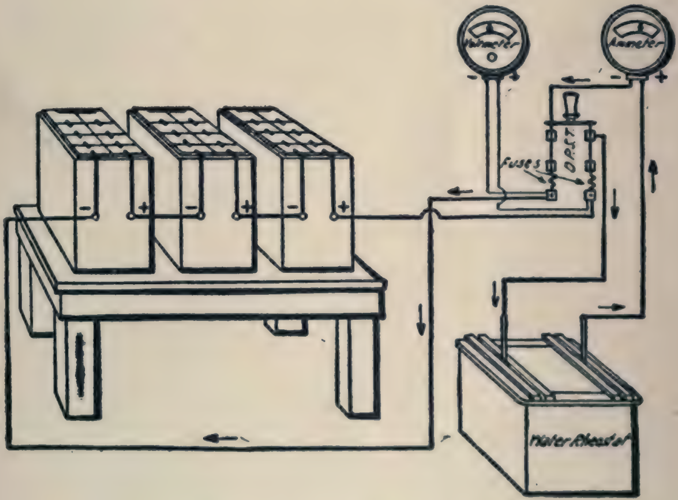


FIG. 21.—METHOD OF CHARGING STORAGE BATTERIES

ment for burning the battery straps in place being shown in Fig. 20.

Rate of Charging.—As a rule, the manufacturers of storage cells will give the rate at which a battery should be charged. This rate of current is maintained constant on the battery by means of a rheostat until the voltmeter shows that the voltage has risen until it averages about 2.5 volts for each cell. The current should then be reduced to about one-half of that original amount. The voltage will then drop, but the half-rate charging should continue until the voltage again rises to about 2.5 volts per cell. The arrangement of connections is shown in Fig. 21.

If it is necessary to charge the batteries in a hurry, the excess of charging current should be used during the first part of the charge only, and never at or near the end of the charge, which should always be conducted according to directions.

Recharging.—Since the average voltage of a storage cell is about two volts, it is time to recharge a battery when its voltage drops to 1.75 volts per cell. It should not be exhausted to a lower voltage than this, because the batteries will deteriorate very rapidly after the voltage falls below this amount. As a rule it is not advisable to recharge a battery unless its charge is at least one-half expended, and the length of charge given it, if only partially exhausted, should be proportioned to the fraction of the charge which is estimated to have been utilized. The charge in ampere-hours to be given a partially discharged battery is often taken as the estimated ampere-hours of discharge, plus 15 or 20 per cent.

Temperature When Charging.—The temperature of the cells should be carefully watched during the charge, and if they become very hot to the touch the current may well be reduced, or the charge may be discontinued long enough to allow the cells to resume a safe temperature. Don't ever allow the temperature to rise above 100 degrees F.

How to Test Cells.—When testing cells, a low-reading volt-meter should be used to determine the voltage of each cell. The cell voltage should be taken when the battery is discharging. This may be done by connecting the battery to a rheostat. Any cells which register a low voltage should be marked for future attention. The low cell may be brought up to its proper voltage when the whole battery is recharged, but if it remains low after recharging, it shows that the cell is either short-circuited or plates have deteriorated.

The specific gravity of the cell is tested by means of a hydrometer. When fully charged, the cell should show a gravity of about 1.250 specific gravity, or 28 degrees Baume. If, when testing the charged cells, any one is found which has a smaller density, it will be found that for some reason it is not in the proper condition. The arrangement of batteries connected for test discharge is shown in Fig. 22.

Level of Liquid.—It is customary to keep the liquid within the cells at such a height as to fully cover the elements. If the level is reduced, spilling or bubbling, fresh electrolyte of the proper gravity should be added to replace the loss. In case the loss has been occasioned by evaporation, the proper quantity of distilled water should be added.

Why Cells Are Short-Circuited.—Sediment which forms in a cell may be due to the active material scaling off the plates from the effects of hard service, jarring or an excessive rate of charge, and collecting in the bottom of the jars. If it collects in sufficient quantity it may bridge the positive and negative groups of plates and short-circuit the cell, destructively discharging it. Sometimes the separators of the opposing groups of plates of a cell become bridged by sediment, and a short-circuit results. A short-circuited cell will generally head badly, and lose its voltage and charge rapidly. It is essential that sediment be removed from the jars, and the jars thoroughly washed out before much sediment collects. The plates should be exposed to the air as short a time as possible. In case a

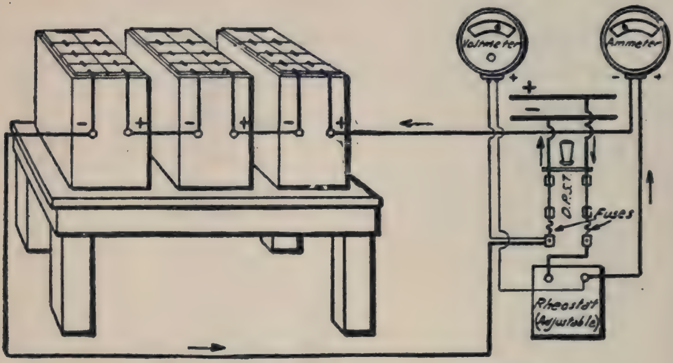


FIG. 22.—METHOD OF TESTING BATTERIES

cell appears to be internally short-circuited or otherwise defective, so that it cannot be brought up to a proper voltage, the cell should be replaced or given a special charge.

Sulphating.—When a battery is over-charged, or when it is allowed to discharge for any length of time, the plates will deteriorate. This effect is known as sulphating, because sulphate of lead is formed under these conditions. The effect of this sulphating is to prevent the cells from working properly. To prevent this condition, the batteries should never be allowed to fall below a certain voltage, and the battery of any car which is out of regular service should, at intervals of three or four weeks, be discharged through a rheostat, or otherwise, and then given a full fresh charge.

Preparing the Electrolyte.—The electrolyte or liquor for a storage battery, is a mixture of pure distilled water, and pure sulphuric acid; about five volumes of water to one volume of chemically pure sulphuric acid.

If the acid is not chemically pure it should be tested for hydrochloric acid, iron, and nitric acid. The acid should always be poured into the water, because if the water is poured into the acid an explosive ebullition may take place which would throw the acid about. The mixture will be hot at first. After it has cooled it should read 1180 to 1250 on the hydrometer. The mixture should be thoroughly cooled before it is poured into the cells. A lead lined vessel is the best for mixing the solution in.

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